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ABSTRACT

The four 1984 quarterly numbers of the journal include feature articles, techniques for teaching English as a second language (ESL), research summaries, and book reviews. The feature articles include: "The English Language Center at King Faisal University"; "English Language Training at ARAMCO"; "AlBank AlSaudi AlHollandi's Practical English Program"; "Correlations between Spelling Quizzes and Students' Examination Results"; "The Text and Its Message"; "Teaching English in the Context of Arabicization"; "What About the Student?"; "Teaching ESL at an English-Medium International School"; "Some Predictable Errors of Arab Students in Written English"; "Planning a University Language Center in Oman: Problems and Proposals"; "Teaching ESL to Arabic-Speaking Students Through the Use of Creative Dramatics"; "Designing an Effective Reading Lab"; "Self-Access in ESP"; "Common Problems in Teaching Writing, Spelling and Pronunciation to Arab Students"; and "Measuring Student Attitudes for Curriculum Planning." Techniques discussed include spelling tips for teachers, oral practice through grammar, making a three-dimensional model to scale as a beginning application of English, and picture-guided oral summaries. Two research summaries concern ESL spelling errors and problems faced by ESL teachers in Turkey. (MSE)

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NO. 46 SPRING 1984

TEAM

ENGLISH LANGUAGE CENTER

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FROM THE EDITOR . . .

With this issue, TEAM completes its survey of English language teaching at university level in Saudi Arabia. In the past year, we have published descriptions of the programs at King Abdulaziz University in Jeddah and King Saud University in Riyadh. In this issue, Dr. Omer M. Abdelrasoul, Director of the English Department at King Faisal University in Dammam, describes the curriculum in use there during the past academic year.

The Arabian American Oil Company (ARAMCO) is URM's closest neighbor, and TEAM is pleased to publish here a description of ARAMCO's English teaching programs, which is one of the largest of its kind in the world. Thanks go to Virginia Charlten of the Academic Curriculum Unit of ARAMCO's Training Department.

John C.S. Vaughn from Jeddah writes on the approach used by his staff in teaching English for occupational purposes to employees of AlBank AlSaudi AlHollandi.

Barry Natusch, Coordinator of the Computer-Assisted Learning Facility at the URM English Language Center, takes a look at possible correlations between spelling performance and overall examination results among students.

In future issues, we plan to bring to you an article from the Universidade Federale do Espirito Santo in Brazil suggesting ways in which some of Roger's principles of learning can be employed in the classroom. From Oman, Dr. D. Adams Smith of the Sultan Qaboos University project will report on the problems and challenges of designing and implementing a language center for a new university. Dr. M.O. Kambal of King Faisal University will share with us his thoughts on the teaching of English in the context of Arabicization. URM's Darion Hutchinson will report his findings on a study of predictable errors in English made by Arabic speakers. Finally, Elana K. Honi will describe junior high school ESOL courses at the Dhahran Academy.

We would like to remind our readers that we always welcome comments and suggestions regarding any aspect of TEAM. Without some sort of feedback, we can never be sure of how well or poorly we are serving you. Additionally, we want to encourage contributions from you in the form of articles, reviews, techniques, and reports on conferences and conventions. Let us hear from you soon.

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THOMAS ARTICLE CITED

I have very much appreciated receiving copies of TEAM, and have always found something of interest and value in each issue.

In the Winter 1983 issue the article by Patricia Thomas on English as an International Auxiliary Language provided a number of ideas which will prove especially helpful when I attend meetings of the Advisory Committee on English as an International Language, at the East West Center in Hawaii next summer.

Congratulations to you and others on the TEAM staff, on your useful and highly professional publication.

Virginia French Allen
Professor Emeritus
Temple University
Philadelphia, Pennsylvania
U.S.A.

REVIEW REVIEWED

I read with interest your review on our Heinemann Science and Technical Readers (TEAM 44).

Your reviewer refers to the statement, in our cover blurb, that reading skills development "...is achieved within a graded and balanced scheme of language controls", and erroneously concludes from this quotation that we have a 'naive faith in the virtues of language controls'. I think the key word in the quote is 'within'. We did not say 'through' or 'by means of' which might have supported his conclusion better.

However, he is closer to the point in observing that there is no 'systematic development' of reading skills within the readers themselves. The reason for this is clear. The readers are intended as resource material, covering in some detail a wide breadth of subjects across the whole spectrum of the series. Individual titles in themselves simply do not have the space to provide a systematic reading course as well as the topic-related 'mini-textbook' which they do in fact represent.

Our Activities section is our attempt at a compromise in this balancing act, and in our later titles (Computers, Auto Transmission, Petroleum Downstream) we do try to be more 'systematic' within the very tight space limitations. I hope your reviewer will find the approach in these titles (to be extended throughout the series) answers his criticisms, at least in part.

Christopher Moore
HSTR Series Editor
Heinemann Educational Books
London

COMPUTERS, ONGOING

With reference to the letter from Anne Belch (TEAM 44), you may be interested to know that Computers in Language Learning by Johns and Higgins has just been published by Collins.

Ms G. Horton (for Tim Johns)
The University of Birmingham
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U.K.

THE ENGLISH LANGUAGE CENTER AT KING FAISAL UNIVERSITY

Omer M. Abdelrasoul
King Faisal University
Dammam, Saudi Arabia

1. BACKGROUND

King Faisal University (KFU) was established in 1976 with campuses at Al-Hasa and Dammam. The University includes five colleges: the College of Medicine and Medical Sciences and the College of Architecture and Planning at the Dammam Campus; the College of Agricultural Sciences and Food, the College of Veterinary Science & Animal Resources, and the College of Education at the Al-Hasa Campus. The total enrollment at the two campuses is 2,999 and the faculty number 745.

The educational objectives of the various colleges are derived from the goals specified for the University at its foundation. The University seeks to enhance the welfare of the nation by imparting to its students an increased understanding of, and identification with, Islamic values and traditions; the ability to communicate effectively in Arabic and English; the ability to think logically about problems that call for analysis, synthesis, and application; an appreciation of their responsibility to contribute to the development of society; and a mastery of the subject matter in their selected fields of study.

The English Language Program of KFU began serving the students of the University in 1976 and has expanded and developed along with the university since that time. Initially, the English Language Program was directed from Dammam but it provided courses for all in-coming students at both campuses. The Program was administratively separate from the colleges and controlled by the University Council, which is composed of representatives from each of the colleges and the higher administrative officials of the University.

In 1979, the program in Dammam became the English Language Center (ELC) with responsibility for providing first-year students of architecture and medicine with intensive English language training. The program in Al-Hasa was eventually merged with the Department of Foreign Languages of the College of Education there.

In October 1983, the ELC became a part of the Department of Foreign Languages. The Director of the ELC became Chairman of the Department and now divides his time between the two campuses.

2. PURPOSE

The aims of our program are two-fold: first, to raise the level of the students' general English proficiency so that they are adequately prepared to

pursue university studies through the medium of English, and secondly, to aid the students in making the academic transition from secondary school to university with special emphasis on the English needed for academic and scientific purposes.

Our contact with the freshman students lasts two semesters commencing, in most cases, with the students' first semester at the University. Although the two semesters of our program are carefully integrated, the students take two separate courses: English 101 (General English) in the first semester and English 151 (Scientific English) in the second. The former is an intensive course to raise proficiency, the latter, designed to prepare students for the academic and technical uses of English, is taken concurrently with a reduced load of basic science classes.

Since it is our goal to help the students reach an adequate level of proficiency in English, and since in-coming students vary considerably in their command of the language, we find students at both ends of the spectrum who do not fit into our two-semester program. Depending on the results of tests given at the beginning of the semester, a few students each year are exempted from taking the General English Course. On the other hand, some students are not able to achieve an adequate level of proficiency in one semester, so they repeat the second semester course during the summer if necessary. However, we have found that, given the time limitation of the university curriculum, the great majority of the students are adequately prepared for future studies by going through our two-semester program. The following information should give a better idea of how that program operates.

3. GENERAL PROCEDURE AND TEACHING METHODOLOGY

All students who enter KFU undergo a series of written and oral admission tests administered by the various departments of the college they wish to enter. An English test is included in this battery of exams. The composite score which a student achieves on all these tests, combined with his secondary school record, determine whether or not the student is admitted. Once admitted, students take another English test which serves to place them in one of three levels of proficiency: advanced, intermediate or elementary. All students are expected to meet the same minimal requirements by the end of the course, but the instruction, the rate of advancement, and much of the supplementary material differ from one level to another.

The first semester intensive course involves 30 contact hours per week, and the actual classes are divided into different components along the traditional lines of listening, speaking, reading and writing (see Section 4 for more detail). These divisions, however, are not as clearcut in the classroom as they are on paper; there is an effort to integrate skill practice and to coordinate the materials presented in the various classes. This coordination is not a simple matter because each group of students will have three or more different teachers in order to expose them to several different English speakers. In an effort to maximize individual attention, we try to keep class size as small as possible (normally 15-20 students per class).

The specialized second semester course involves 13 contact hours per week

in the College of Medicine and 10 in the College of Architecture. These hours are sub-divided into classes for reading, writing and study skills, but again there is integration and reinforcement among the different class activities. Whereas the first semester is essentially the same for all students regardless of their college, the second semester is necessarily more specialized according to the student's field, particularly in the reading classes. Class size is still kept small in the second semester, but there is no division of students according to level of ability.

It would be difficult to write a detailed description of our teaching methodology because we currently have over 28 staff members and each has his or her own way of approaching classroom activities. One of the strengths of our program is that the ELC does not dictate teaching techniques of materials to its instructors. Of course, for the sake of unity, we do have functioning committees which produce guidelines and syllabuses, coordinate the various components, review and choose basic texts, and construct the major course exams as well as continually review the overall success of the students, the classes and the program as a whole.

In general, our approach to English language learning is to view it as a skill which is developed over a period of time rather than as a finite body of facts which can be memorized and then recalled at will. Thus, our methodology emphasizes graded practice, repeated exposure, and patient review. Our classes stress participation and competent production rather than memorization and theory. In implementing this approach, we use standard available ESL textbooks, but these are extensively supplemented with teacher-made materials which are designed specifically for our students.

All our testing materials are written by the instructors. Weekly class quizzes are the responsibility of the individual class instructors and are primarily achievement tests. The quarterly, mid-term and final exams are written by committees, and they are a combination of achievement and proficiency tests. A student's grade in the course then depends partly on his achievement in his particular classes and partly on his general level of English proficiency. However, no student passes out of the course until he has reached a level of English proficiency which is adequate for his academic needs.

4. COURSE DESIGN

The first semester General English course (English 101) occupies 30 class hours per week, which are divided as follows: 8 hours of Structure; 10 hours of Reading; 4 hours of Writing; 3 hours of Listening Comprehension; 3 hours of Language Laboratory; 2 hours of Tutorials. The second semester Scientific Course (English 151) occupies 13 hours per week in the College of Medicine and 10 hours per week in the College of Architecture, sub-divided as follows: 7 hours of Scientific Reading for Medicine and 4 hours for Architecture; 3 hours of Scientific Writing; 3 hours of Study Skills.

Sections A and B of this report provide a more detailed description of courses.

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A. ENGLISH 101 (General English)

1. Structure: The structure course can be briefly described as an intensive review of the morphological and syntactic characteristics of English. It is of fundamental importance in the students' preparation. The course proceeds at a rapid pace because of the large amount of material to be covered and because the students have presumably been previously exposed to much of it. However, the course is still comprehensive, and begins with the most basic structures in order to fill in any gaps left by the school instruction. (The average student entering KFU has had 6 years of English in school, but the quality of that training and the success of the students varies considerably.) The structure course makes extensive use of exercises and drills with emphasis on oral production.

2. Reading: The development of effective reading skills is crucial to the students' success in their future courses of study at KFU. The reading course is designed to foster this development in two areas: basic reading comprehension skills and vocabulary enrichment. The reading texts and materials are carefully graded and there is a mixture of intensive and extensive reading activities. The students' active core vocabulary is internalized and expanded, and at the same time a considerable amount of sub-technical vocabulary is introduced. The first semester reading course is not specifically 'scientific', but we find that motivation is enhanced if the subject matter of the reading material has a scientific or technological slant. As a result, the students are exposed to scientific vocabulary and usage even in the first semester.

3. Writing: As is the case with structure, the writing course can be characterized as an intensive review, though in this area the students are initially less competent. The course begins with handwriting exercises and emphasis on the mechanics of English writing, and progresses rapidly through basic sentence reproduction and sentence manipulation to paragraph development. The ultimate goal is the ability to communicate in clear and simple expository prose. However, in many cases, this goal is not reached in the first semester. The second semester writing course is a continuation and reinforcement of much of what is begun in the first semester.

4. Listening Comprehension: Because of the particular needs of our students, listening comprehension receives special, if limited, emphasis. Abundant practice is given in speech recognition, while the major thrust of the course is on selective listening for major points and factual information. Lecture note-taking skills are introduced. Since English is the medium of instruction for all divisions of English 101, the students' training in aural comprehension is not limited to this class.

5. Language Laboratory: The 3 hours per week spent in the language laboratory are devoted to group and individual practice and drills. The material is closely coordinated with the structure and listening courses.

6. Tutorials: The tutorials are individual or small group sessions focusing on specific student difficulties, and are usually assigned at the discretion of the instructor.

B. ENGLISH 151 (Scientific English)

1. Scientific Reading: The second semester reading course develops further the reading skills introduced in the first semester. However, the material is more closely related to basic science and to the student's chosen fields of study. The emphasis of instruction in the course is not on the scientific content of the material, but centers rather on familiarizing the students with the structure, style and vocabulary of academic, scientific expression. This emphasis is maintained by keeping the scientific content of the material at a level that is easily understood by the students or already familiar to them. In addition to comprehension skills and vocabulary development, this course attempts to improve reading speed and to train students to adapt their reading method to suit their specific reading purpose.

2. Scientific Writing: The second semester writing course is an extension of the first semester course, but its emphasis is on writing for a scientific or academic purpose. Students are given guided and free writing practice at sentence, paragraph and short composition levels. The subject matter of all the written work is related to general science, and an attempt is made to design the assignments so that they reflect the kinds of writing students will be asked to do in their future courses.

3. Study Skills: The study skills course can be described as English for academic purposes. It is here that students gain more detailed experience in using the dictionary and the library, and in note-taking and outlining. The goal of the course is to prepare students to meet the general demands of university study in English.

CONCLUDING REMARKS

The ultimate measure of our success or failure is reflected in the students themselves. The great majority of our students are adequately prepared to pursue their university studies in English at KFU once they have successfully completed our program. There are those few students, however, who pass through our program and still have significant difficulty in their English medium studies. Perhaps these students simply needed more time. Unfortunately, time is critical in every phase of the students' careers. Because of the complex nature of language learning, the process takes time, an amount of time which varies from one individual learner to another. Yet none of our students are here at the university for the purpose of mastering English, so understandably they (and the instructors in the colleges they will enter) want to get on with their course work as quickly as possible. The result, in some cases, is a compromise which may, but does not always, benefit the individual student.

It is these very limitations which encourage critical evaluation and constructive revision of our program, and that is healthy. Our strengths are the result of seven years of effort on the part of faculty and administration. We hope for continued progress.

ENGLISH LANGUAGE TRAINING AT ARAMCO

Academic Curriculum Unit
ARAMCO Training Department
Dhahran, Saudi Arabia

Training Saudis to manage, operate and maintain Saudi Arabia's vast oil and gas extraction and processing industry has long been a high-priority goal at ARAMCO. An integral part of efforts toward meeting this goal is ARAMCO's English language training program. Although the majority of ARAMCO's employees are Saudi, successful performance of many jobs in ARAMCO's multinational workforce requires interaction with workers who do not speak Arabic. Because English is studied as an international language, it is used as the common means of communication. In addition, many training opportunities exist throughout the world for those who are proficient in English.

Until the late 1960's, ARAMCO's English language program was a single track focused mainly on preparing trainees for university study in the U.S.A. During the 1970's, however, as the company expanded rapidly and increased emphasis was placed on training, the need for English language courses to prepare employees in a variety of both academic and job-related English language skills at all levels of proficiency was recognized. To meet these needs, ARAMCO expanded its English language program until today it meets the needs of a variety of target populations and job areas.

ARAMCO's English language training program may be divided into three categories:

- Basic English Language Training;
- Advanced English Language Training;
- Specialized English Language Training.

BASIC ENGLISH LANGUAGE TRAINING

Basic English Language Training is made of two tracks of instruction. Each consists of approximately 1440 hours of instruction and is designed to take trainees from the absolute beginner through the intermediate levels of English language proficiency. Each track, however, is intended for a different target population and consequently different materials and methodology are used.

The Regular English track is intended for trainees who are targeted for non-technical jobs in the medical, accounting, financial, purchasing or administrative areas. This track is best classified as a general English course based on a structural syllabus and using the audio-lingual approach. It is the oldest track in the existing ARAMCO training system. Materials are mainly commercial though some original texts and supplemental materials developed by the Training Department are used. The goal of this track is development of general competence in the areas of listening, speaking, reading and writing.

The Vocational English Language Training (VELT) track is intended for trainees whose job targets are in the areas of mechanical and electrical

maintenance, instrument repair and oil and gas operations. VELT is an English for Specific Purposes program based on a functional-structural syllabus. Emphasis is on job-related subtechnical and technical functions, structures and vocabulary. The approach is communicative with heavy use of audio-visual and other teaching aids and realia. Although all skills are taught, the primary goal of this track is communicative competence in spoken English.

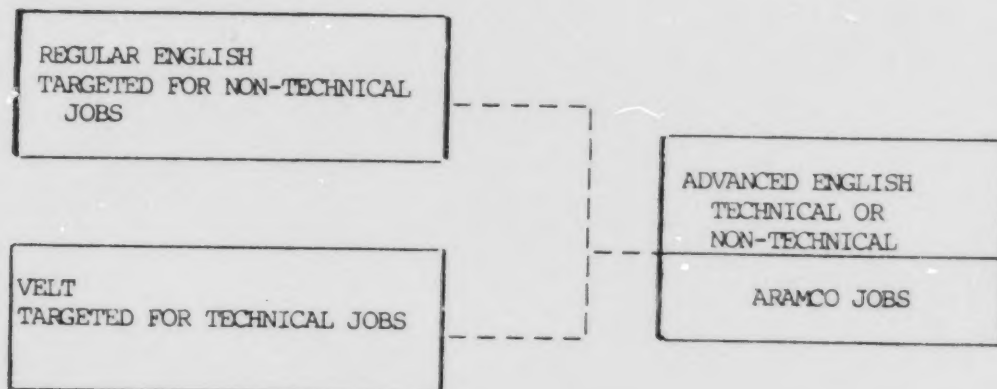
Materials used are all ARAMCO specific original materials developed for the Training Department under contract. Seventy-five percent of the material is core that is studied by all trainees, the remaining 25% is specialist materials relevant to each specific job target area and studied only by those trainees targeted for that area. Syllabus design and topic selection were based on a needs assessment of the job target areas mentioned earlier. This track was implemented in early 1980, has been evaluated and is now being revised.

ADVANCED ENGLISH LANGUAGE TRAINING

This area of training is intended to meet the needs of all trainees whose jobs require a higher proficiency in English than is attained in either of the Basic English Language Training tracks. It consists of 1080 hours of instruction with the option of either a technical or non-technical track. In both tracks, the emphasis is on developing reading and writing skills though practice in the oral/aural skills is not neglected. This area of training is, in fact, a continuation of the Regular English track of Basic English Language Training and therefore is similar in design and approach. Materials for both the technical and non-technical tracks are mainly commercial though some original supplemental material is used, particularly in the technical track.

The following diagram graphically presents ARAMCO's Basic and Advanced English Language Training areas.

ARAMCO BASIC AND ADVANCED ENGLISH LANGUAGE TRAINING



SPECIALIZED ENGLISH LANGUAGE TRAINING

In addition to the Basic and Advanced English Language Training areas, ARAMCO has another important area of English language training: Specialized English Language Training. The two tracks in the area are designed to meet the needs of particular target populations within the ARAMCO workforce.

The Professional English Program (PELP) is intended for recently hired Saudi employees who are graduates of non-English language medium universities. The goal of the PELP is to give these employees who already have a professional background a high level of competence in business related English language skills as quickly as possible. The track, therefore, focuses on developing communicative competence in such tasks as writing business letters, reading business documents (letters, manuals, professional literature), giving and following oral reports, and participating in job-related conversations and meetings.

The PELP may be described as an integrated English for Business and Economics course based on a functional syllabus. It is approximately 1500 hours long and is intended to take trainees from a basic level through an advanced level of proficiency. All teachers are native speakers of English and the approach is highly communicative. The course design includes the concepts of remediation of weaknesses in specific skill areas and performance-based evaluation of proficiency in language tasks. Materials used in the program are mainly commercial texts in the topic area of business with some ARAMCO-specific supplemental material. Computer-assisted instruction materials are employed to facilitate individual remediation.

The PELP is also implemented in a modular format on a part-time basis for ARAMCO employees holding professional level jobs who lack proficiency in a specific skill area. At present, the program is divided into three modules addressing the skill areas of listening/speaking, reading, and writing respectively.

The College Preparatory Program (CPP) is intended for newly hired Saudi high school graduates or other trainees considered to have high potential, who are targeted for university training assignments in the U.S.A. The primary goal of the CPP, therefore, is to qualify trainees as quickly as possible for admission to a university degree program.

The track consists of 900 hours of English language training plus instruction in math, science, computer programming, study skills, SAT preparation and TOEFL preparation. The English language segment of this track is an intermediate to advanced full-time, English for Academic Purposes course using commercial materials.

Providing training in English and in other subjects in order to prepare Saudis to assume jobs within the company, to help Saudi employees perform the jobs they currently hold, and to allow Saudi employees to develop themselves to their fullest potential has been, and will continue to be, the goal of the ARAMCO Training Organization.

ALBANK ALSAUDI ALHOLLANDI'S PRACTICAL ENGLISH PROGRAM

John C.S. Vaughn
Training Centre
AlBank AlSaudi AlHollandi
Jeddah, Saudi Arabia

INTRODUCTION

The English language program for employees of AlBank AlSaudi AlHollandi is, basically, a general English course with a Banking English component. We concentrate more on writing skills than do some ESOL courses and, for beginners, this means learning the basics and mechanics of writing with practice in copying. At the elementary levels, emphasis is on the sentence and the students consolidate the basics of spelling and syntax. From the intermediate level upwards, it moves to the supra-sentential level with stress being placed on style, organisation and specific pieces of writing.

TESTING

Our pressing need to begin classes did not allow time for a thorough analysis or examination of the employees' English language ability before enrolling them in classes. However, we did devise a written, but simple, diagnostic test which was adequate for us to determine the various levels of proficiency. It was administered to employees at the various branches of the company throughout the Kingdom.

The test consisted of twelve questions ranging from "What is your name?" to "What do you like doing in your spare time?" This was preceded by five dictated sentences, e.g., "I went to Riyadh last week." The sentences were delivered at normal speed and the students were required to write all the words in full. All instructions were delivered orally in Arabic. Candidates were then given a short interview during which their papers were at hand. At this point, levels of ability were ascertained. The flow chart following the this article should demonstrate the rough logic which prevailed (See Appendix, Chart 1).

Many factors crept in to influence the decision of borderline cases. There were not many deferred decisions, as those who could not write English could not, usually, understand it either. In the few cases in which this was not the case it was explained to students that they needed basic writing skills, and, therefore they would be in beginners' classes even though their oral skills were of a different order.

Six months later a test was administered to all those who had been assessed as intermediate or advanced in the first test. This test is a simplified version of various parts of a Cambridge First Certificate exam-

ination. It has three parts: a story, written with the Middle East in mind, with twenty words missing; forty questions from the reading comprehension paper in which the student chooses one word from six choices to fit into each sentence; and an essay question requiring the students to describe Saudi Arabia to a foreigner.

From these tests, ten levels of ability were established, and courses ranging from beginning to advanced were arbitrarily assigned to each level. This multi-level system has been a success in terms of class homogeneity and has made it possible to grade effectively.

Some additions will be made to the first test, namely a number of exercises. Students will now also be required to write lower-case equivalents of capital letters, copy type-written dialogues into handwritten ones, spell numbers and put simple sentences in the correct order. This will enable us to devise a reasonably objective marking scheme and thus increase reliability. Simplification of the second test is necessary to increase discrimination at the elementary/intermediate level.

The amended tests will be administered at the end of the second year to all employees with the possibility of biannual retesting and course revision to maintain standards.

COURSE PLANNING

We have many employees but only two teachers. Thus, we have to keep courses short -- from four weeks at the lower levels where much practice is required down to two weeks at the higher levels where a few techniques about paraphrasing, connectors, etc., can be of great help.

We try to teach thirty weeks a year, which means approximately ten courses. We decide which courses to run according to the numbers at each level at the beginning of the year. Our class size is eight, this being what we consider the optimum number if the teacher is to give adequate individual attention.

MATERIAL AND METHODOLOGY

Our methodology for the lower levels is quite simple: we set up situations in which students can practice the four language skills. Each 'corpus' of language is practised using each of the four skills to familiarise the students with all the elements. We use the BBC 'Follow Me' series on video for our five lower levels. Criticism has been levelled that the first ten units are too difficult for complete beginners, so we are considering writing and filming a complete 100-hour course of our own for the very first level. (The beginning level course itself begins with three days set aside solely for learning how to read and how to write correctly and legibly.)

The first lesson is reserved for formalities, an explanation in Arabic of how to study, and for establishing rapport with the students. The next eleven lessons are taken up purely with the mechanics of handwriting.

This is supplemented by many other strategies, e.g., flash cards of capital and small letters which have to be matched, named or chosen according to the exercise.

In the 'Follow Me' series, there are usually three conversations per unit. One conversation is introduced in each lesson, leaving the fourth lesson for revision or form-filling type exercises. A typical lesson using the first dialogue in Unit 4 would be:

WOMAN: Can you help me?
P.C.: Yes, of course.
WOMAN: Where is the park?
P.C.: The park? It is over there, on the left.
WOMAN: Thank you very much.

The first stage is for the students to watch the relevant part on the video several times to establish a general appreciation of what is happening. Most of the scenes are very explicit, which is helpful in establishing meaning. J.Y.K. Kerr's picture cue cards are a useful supplement at this stage.

After the listening stage, the students are asked to try to repeat some of the more important sentences which they heard and which they will eventually be asked to practise orally. When the correct response has been elicited from one of the students, the teacher provides the model for drilling. The students practise first with the teacher and then in pairs, two lines at a time until they are proficient in repeating the whole conversation. The students then practise in pairs with more of Kerr's cards. The teacher circulates among the students in order to listen, encourage, correct, etc.

In order to improve reading skills, each word of the dialogue is written on a separate card and is shown to the students who pronounce them aloud. The exercise is then done in pairs and the cards are passed round until every student has read every word. The whole dialogue (or an adapted version to fit the Arab world) is then handed out in handwritten form on four-lined paper. The students then read it aloud. Finally, the students are asked to copy the dialogue on to the lined paper progressing from single words to phrases and, finally, to complete sentences while the teacher also checks the height and direction of the letters. Any time left at the end of the hour can be used for spelling games, revision of oral practice, etc.

Despite the small number of words involved, the lesson presents a real challenge to, and sense of achievement for, complete beginners when they are able to manipulate the elements in many ways. After a few days, basic structures, vocabulary and spelling become second nature to the students. Thus, small amounts of new material are incorporated into a lesson together with much practice of familiar material.

An integral part of the course is daily, weekly and total revision together with two formal tests, one at the end of the second week and the other at the end of the course, which test the content of the lessons -- writing the alphabet, spelling words, especially numbers, ordering words in a sentence, etc.

As students progress through 'Follow Me,' the exercises become more demanding and less structured but the overall timetable remains the same. At the sixth level, however, the emphasis changes to writing skills and aural comprehension.

The Intermediate 1 course lasts three weeks, during which time the students watch the whole of the BBC 'On We Go' series. Many exercises in vocabulary, writing, comprehension, etc., have been taken from this series. Each day, two units are covered in the first and third lessons.

In the lessons when we are not using Jupp and Milne's Basic Writing Skills in English, we generally divide a class period using Start Listening by Alan McLean and English for Bank Cashiers by Ferguson and O'Reilly, as well as reading comprehension materials and Kerr's cards to practice structures and functions.

The formal test which is given at the end of each week consists of four sections. Section 1 consists of ten multiple-choice vocabulary items taken from 'On We Go'. Sections 2, 3 and 4 require the students to reproduce the three types of writing that they practised during the week.

At the I-2 level we are still considering what material to use and at I-3 we plan to use the 'Sardine Project' as a two week course. At the Advanced level we have run a 'Special Skills in English' course with some success. This is a mixture of ideas stimulated in part by Frank Chaplen's Paragraph Writing and J.V. Heaton's Studying English. The emphasis is on tidying up writing by supplying useful hints and practice with regard to paragraphing, etc.

SUPPLEMENTARY COURSES

We are incorporating into our program a number of supplementary courses and activities both within the Kingdom and abroad. For example, we send selected students to one of three general schools in England and a single establishment which operates on a one-to-one basis for special cases. We liaise with the schools very closely so that they understand our needs clearly. We also give all our returning students a questionnaire to fill in so they can express their opinion on various aspects of the schools, accommodation and surroundings. Copies of these questionnaires are sent to the schools as feedback. Careful selection of schools and students coupled with comprehensive briefing of students has so far resulted in our achieving excellent results.

With a target group of 200 and only two teachers, we obviously do not see the students often enough to claim meaningful progress unless we can establish ways of encouraging them to study in their own time between courses. To this end, we have three goals in view:

a) We hope to have copies at each branch of all the videos we use so that students can borrow the course they have just studied and to refresh their memories. We also hope to devise materials to supplement these videos, which the students can work on at home and send to the Training Centre for appraisal;

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b) We hope to have a collection of graded readers and graded crossword puzzles at each branch for students' use. These collections and those mentioned in (a) could be controlled by the training coordinator of each branch;

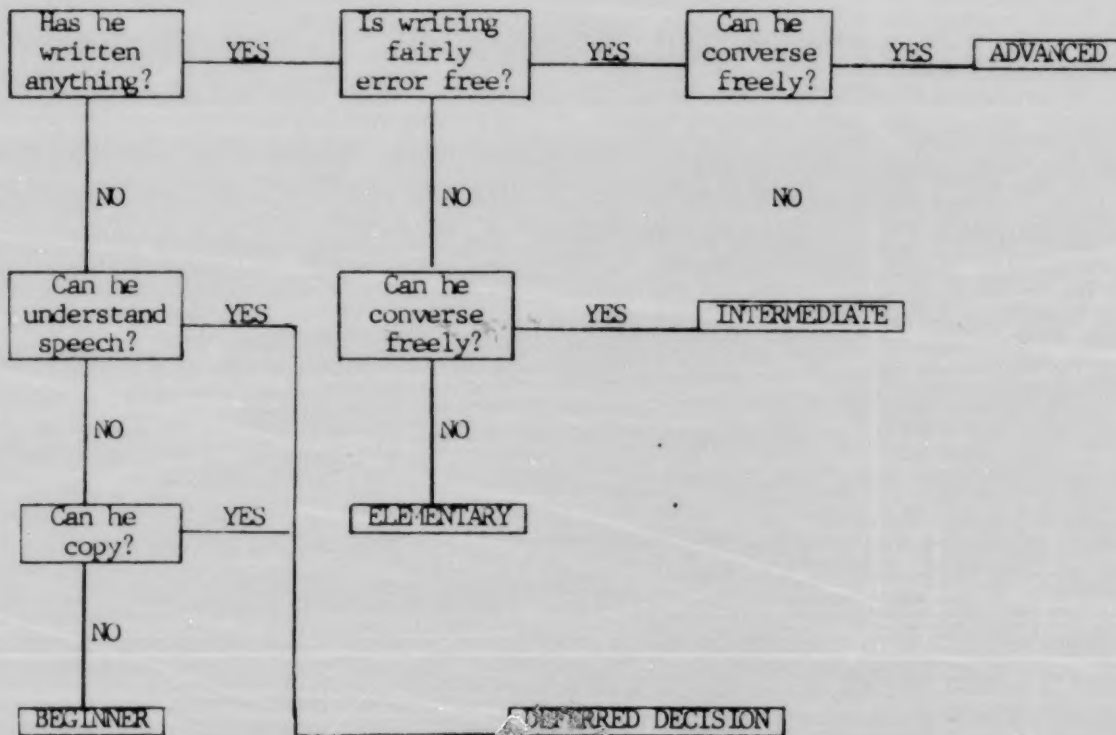
c) We encourage English-speaking employees to converse with our students and we also ask the students to avail themselves of the English around them, be it on television, in newspapers or in their latest course file.

CONCLUSION

What we are doing is, briefly, trying to give our students in our programme here at AlBank AlSaudi ALHollandi an interest in the English language and an incentive to utilise the opportunities for practise that we provide.

APPENDIX

CHART 1



CORRELATIONS BETWEEN SPELLING QUIZZES AND STUDENTS' EXAMINATION RESULTS

Barry Natusch
University of Petroleum & Minerals
Dhahran, Saudi Arabia

There are many ways to predict how well a class of students is likely to do in their examinations. The following is a short description of how the results of two ten-minute spelling quizzes were found to correlate very highly with the results of six examinations in separate skill areas of English. The finding suggests that even a simple spelling quiz of vocabulary items learned by students can be used as a predictor of the scores they are likely to attain in their final examination.

METHOD

Students in the preparatory year program at UPM study five subjects: English, Maths, Systems Engineering, Mechanical Engineering, and Physical Education. Considerable attention is given to English on which students spend 20 hours of class time per week. Course material covers reading, writing, grammar, listening, vocabulary and oral skills. Examinations in these areas are held halfway through the first semester, at the end of the first semester and finally at the end of the second semester. The experiment was carried out twice as follows. Fifty words frequently misspelled by students were selected from the course material covered up to the end of the first quarter (six weeks of course work) and these words were given as a surprise spelling test to 38 students out of 1127 enrolled in the program. A week later the students sat their first battery of six English examinations. The spelling test score attained by each student was correlated with his mean score in the examinations using statistical methods described by Popham and Sirotnik (1973). At the end of the first semester (after thirteen weeks of course work) the procedure was repeated. Fifty more words were selected from the whole of the first semester's work and given as a surprise spelling test to 28 out of 1050 students the week before their end of semester examinations. Again their spelling test scores were correlated with their examination mean scores.

RESULTS

The results of the correlation calculations are set out in Table 1. On both occasions a highly significant correlation ($p > .01$) was obtained. Put simply, this means that spelling test scores are likely to be a good indicator of a student's general proficiency in the scientific/technological English taught in the ELC course and measured by the six examinations which test reading, writing, grammar, listening, vocabulary and oral skills.

DISCUSSION

The question arises as to why such a minor area (Spelling) of only one particular course component (Vocabulary) correlates so highly with the final examination score. Possibly it indicates that a student who learns his English

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well also learns to spell. Viewed from a more interesting perspective, however, it also suggests that the ability of a second language learner to spell well is an indicator (perhaps as cloze tests are - see Oller, 1979) of his general proficiency in English. It should also be noted, however, that some learners may be poor spellers and yet be reasonably proficient in English. There is a parallel at the native speaker level too. Kurt Vonnegut by his own admission is a poor speller and yet some would say that he has good control of what he does with English. Among the students tested, however, only two performed poorly on the spelling test and yet attained a high examination result. There were none who did well in spelling but poorly in the examination.

In the light of this result, it can be fairly asked that if a simple test can produce a reasonably accurate assessment of a student's abilities, why is there a need for complicated methods of language assessment such as a battery of tests probing all skill areas and which take many man-hours of work to administer and mark. There are several good reasons. First, there is the argument that anything taught in a course ought to be tested. This seems fair particularly when item analysis of the results can serve to diagnose areas of the course in need of rewriting or clarification. Second, in programs where assessment depends almost totally on the final exam results (as is the case in the ELC 001 and 002 courses) it is fairer to the students if they sit a number of exams over several days. Finally, in order for a test to be reliable (particularly the multiple-choice type), it is necessary for a reasonable number of items (e.g. 30 of 40) to be included. This also lengthens the testing procedure.

CONCLUSION

It has been shown that a spelling test of 50 items selected from the vocabulary component of the UPM Preparatory Year English Program is one potentially useful device for predicting how students will perform in the battery of examinations administered to them three times a year. It should be stressed that there are no doubt many other tests which could be used as predictive instruments also, and that a mere spelling test should not be used as the sole method of prediction.

TABLE 1

Correlations Between Spelling Tests and Examination Mean Scores

	r	N	p
End of First Quarter	.76	38	.01
End of First Semester	.71	28	.01

REFERENCES

- Oller, J.W. 1979. Language Tests in School. London: Longman.
Popham, W.J. and Sirotnik, K.A. 1973. Educational Statistics. New York: Harper and Row.

... TECHNIQUES

SPELLING TIPS FOR TEACHERS

Lee Tesdell
University of Petroleum and Minerals
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The teaching of spelling is one part of the ESOL writing teacher's domain that receives relatively little attention. Here at UPM the only organized attempts at teaching spelling are to be found in vocabulary exercise books, which, all too often, have the unfortunate effect of reinforcing the incorrect spelling of some words. A rather old-fashioned approach to the problem has shown some positive results which are offered here.

DESCRIPTION OF THE METHOD

The teacher selects ten key words from the core reading passage for each unit on the basis of their degree of importance rather than on the basis of their difficulty. At the beginning of the first three-week period of the semester, the students are pre-tested on the thirty targeted words by means of a spelling dictation. For each of the following three weeks, a spelling worksheet is prepared which has three components: an exercise in which the students fill in the blank in a meaningful context with one of the ten words; an exercise in which the students transcribe each of the ten sentences onto the right hand side of the worksheet; and finally, a self-test exercise in which the student folds the worksheet and writes each of the ten words five times on the back of the worksheet. This worksheet is introduced on the first day of each school week so that the students have five days in which to complete it. On the last day of the week, the students take a spelling dictation based on that week's ten words. At the end of the three-week period, the students take another spelling dictation based on all thirty words.

THE INTENTION

The first aim of this method is for the students to learn each of the ten words on the weekly list in context. The second aim is to help them memorize the spelling of each word. These aims are accomplished by demanding that the students become familiar with the form of the word both in context and out of context.

THE RESULTS

Initial results from two writing classes at UPM were encouraging. A total of thirty-six students in the two classes obtained pre-test scores ranging from a low of seven percent to a high of fifty-three percent; scores were typically in the twenty to thirty percent range. In the post-test, scores ranged from fifty percent to one hundred percent; the most frequent score was in the ninety percent range. Two students received perfect scores in the post test.

THE GRAMMAR BOOK

Authors: Marianne Celce-Murcia & Diane Larsen-Freeman; Newbury House, 1983

Reviewer: John Avery
University of Petroleum & Minerals
Dhahran, Saudi Arabia

With the publication of this somewhat presumptuously entitled text, Professors Marianne Celce-Murcia and Diane Larsen-Freeman have sought to fill a gap in EFL/ESL teacher preparation programs which have dealt inconsistently with educating M.A. and Certificate candidates in the complexities of both the grammar of English itself and methods of teaching it to non-native learners. The authors indicate that the material contained in their book is suitable as a text for those preparing to become teachers, or as a reference/review book for already practicing teachers. The value to both groups, but especially to the latter, is that this book not only serves as a source of information but also approaches grammar from the perspective of having to explain grammar to those who are learning English as a second language. Other grammars may be more complete, such as Quirk et al's A GRAMMAR OF CONTEMPORARY ENGLISH, but the projected audience of such grammar consists of linguists, which means they may not be as useful for classroom application.

The authors begin by establishing that a good knowledge of grammar is indispensable to the language teacher, even to those who adopt a non-grammatical syllabus (i.e. a situational, notional-functional or communicative syllabus). Knowing one's grammar means knowing how much language to cover in a single lesson and it also enables the teacher to answer readily the questions which inevitably and frequently arise in the classroom.

The authors continue by explaining that the approach they take towards analyzing grammar is an eclectic one which emphasizes the transformational model. It is made clear that the use of this transformational model does not exclude that of other grammatical systems. Throughout the text, other approaches are, in fact, used. For example, traditional grammar is used to explain the article system, and case grammar is utilized to explain the formation of passive sentences.

The first three chapters illustrate the basics of transformational grammar to the uninitiated so as to set the groundwork for the terminology given in the chapters that follow. Their explanations are not labored, however (references are given for more technical aspects), and those who are familiar with transformational grammar will find they can effectively scan most of the material.

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Once the adapted phrase structure rules have been explained, the remainder of the text is concerned with a fluent and well-researched presentation of what the authors consider (through consultation with EFL/ESL teachers and the most-used student texts) to be the grammatical structures which EFL/ESL teachers have to deal with in the classroom. Although well-documented, the text is not pedantic. Each chapter is, thankfully, clearly organized in the pattern of: a) a short introduction; b) the main explanation of the subject matter which includes predictable errors that those studying English as a second language may make; c) a short conclusion; d) a set of teaching suggestions which are quite useful and accessible to the reader who is not necessarily concerned with the grammatical parts of the text; e) exercises that test one's knowledge of each chapter's material and one's ability to answer the more difficult questions that may be asked by students; and finally, f) references.

This predictable pattern certainly makes the contents of the book accessible, as does a series of appendices, the best of which is a list of words and phrases that aids the teacher who is trying to find clarification of a grammatical point but does not know under which general heading to look. (For example, to determine whether the verb is singular or plural with 'neither....nor,' one simply looks up 'neither....nor.')

A list of topics, such as 'subject/verb agreement,' is also available.

It can be said that Professors Celce-Murcia and Larsen-Freeman have made a very helpful contribution to the TESOL field. In that their major vehicle is the transformational model, the contents of the book are less accessible to those who prefer a more traditional approach, or for that matter, to those who prefer other grammars, such as case grammar. Moreover, although the authors make a point of presenting grammar descriptively, many teachers (and students) may be frustrated by the lack of strong prescriptive standards upheld in many student texts. It seems, though, that most instructors will appreciate the authors placing more value on practicality than on a dogmatic pursuit of theoretical purity. Certainly THE GRAMMAR BOOK is a welcome resource and one that should enjoy longstanding and widespread usage.

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ENGLISH PHONETICS AND PHONOLOGY: A PRACTICAL COURSE

Author: Peter Roach, Cambridge University Press, 1983

Reviewer: Anthony Butterworth
English Language School, British Aircraft Corporation
Dhahran, Saudi Arabia

This book sets out to "explain how English is pronounced in the accent normally chosen as the standard for people learning the English spoken in England, [presented] in the context of a general theory about speech sounds and how they are used in language." As such, it is very successful. The author describes the production of speech sounds in general, analyses in detail the speech sound system of English in the context of phonemic theory, and gives a clear, concise illustration of the nature and function of stress and intonation in the language. All technical terms are fully explained and printed in bold type on their first appearance for easy reference.

Yet Mr. Roach is at pains to stress that this is more than just a work of reference and "forms part of a course. It is designed to be read from beginning to end." For this purpose, he provides exercises recorded on a cassette to accompany the written text. These take the form of repetition drills, transcription exercises and sound/pattern recognition. They are thoughtfully prepared and well-presented, though one could wish there were more of those which practise phonetic transcription, as this is a skill which must be mastered from the outset if any benefit is to be gained from the rest of the course.

According to the introduction, this course is intended for use by both native and non-native speakers who are teachers or students of English. This is, perhaps, the course's only weakness. The text is of such complexity that only the most advanced of non-native speakers will be able to follow it without help from a tutor, although the author claims it can be used by students studying alone as well as those working under the direction of a tutor. On the other hand, some of the taped exercises deal at length with very basic points which native speakers should have no trouble in grasping. A concentration on either one of these two groups of learners might have been more advisable.

However, the author does make reference to pre-publication testing in institutions around the world (including the Universities of Strasbourg and Sussex, and Ain Shams University in Cairo) with both categories of students, and he does recognise that his course must be used differently in different circumstances. Also, the accompanying Tutor's Book contains references to other books and articles relevant to particular topics and gives suggestions for the design of additional exercise material, facilitating tutor adaptation of the basic course to suit a particular group of learners.

Overall, this seems a useful course book for the teaching of English pronunciation within the wider framework of phonetics and phonology.

CONTRASTIVE USE OF VERB FORMS IN ENGLISH AND ARABIC

Author: Nayef Khanna; Julius Groos Verlag, 1983

Reviewer: Lugman Nagy
University of Petroleum and Minerals
Dhahran, Saudi Arabia

This is Volume 10 in Studies in Descriptive Linguistics, a series intended to supplement the International Review of Applied Linguistics (IRAL). With the ever increasing number of English language programs being developed in the Arab world, this contrastive analysis of verb forms should prove a useful tool both for instructors and for writers of syllabi for Arabic speaking students.

A few decades ago Fries and Lado, among others, forwarded the view that production errors made by any nonhomogeneous group of foreign language learners are caused by interference from L₁. The simple fact that not all errors are a result of interference has led many linguists of today to disclaim the contrastive analysis hypothesis. In order to obtain the necessary empirical evidence to validate this hypothesis, the author devised a special test involving English structures and usage familiar to the students in the secondary schools of Kuwait.

The book comprises five chapters. First, the background to the present study is introduced. The English/Arabic verb systems are then discussed in detail. A comprehensive comparative table of the English/Arabic verb tense systems follows the detailed contrastive analysis. Finally, some educational implications are cited. In addition, the full forty-item structural test is presented in an appendix. The book not only presents a linguistic description but also deals with linguistics as applied to the teaching of English as a foreign language.

One should be warned, however, that this is not a phonological study. The author has employed his own system of transliteration for the Arabic. He has chosen Classical Arabic (C.A.) forms for the basis of the study of categorical meanings of Arabic verb forms. The book presents a unique opportunity, therefore, to examine C.A. and Modern Standard Arabic (M.S.A.) forms in contrasts with a colloquial variety: Kuwaiti Arabic (K.A.), in this case. Undoubtedly, those readers who have studied either Classical or Modern Standard Arabic will benefit more than those who have not from the review of the Arabic verb system and the detailed contrastive analysis. Nevertheless, the author's concluding remarks offer much to the latter.

The results of contrastive analysis should never be considered the sole criterion of the easiness or difficulty of the target language. This study proves that interference from Arabic can be an important cause of confusion to Arabic speaking students and that this interference is, to some extent, predictable. Because of the empirical evidence validated here, this book warrants the attention of all EFL professionals.

... ELC NEWS ITEMS

Reports to the Khaleej Inter-University Newsletter (KIN), published by King Saud University in Riyadh and distributed throughout the Gulf area, included several prepared by staff members of URM's ELC. DENNIS EGAN, Listening Coordinator, outlined ELC's video lab proposal. BARRY NATUSCH, CAL Coordinator, traced the development and progress of computer-assisted learning at the ELC. TOM ADAIS, TEAM Editor, described future magazine projects and made a general call for contributions. DOUGLAS GRIFFITH, Study Skills Committee Chairman, reported on the committee's progress and proposals. DR. MOHAMMED MULLA, Director of Preparatory Year Program, is a rapporteur for KIN.

WILLIAM PHILLIPS, TEAM Circulation Manager, informs us that TEAM is now sent to subscribers in over 55 countries.

MS. DELORES RICK, an English Teaching Consultant with the U.S. Information Agency, met informally with the ELC faculty in February to discuss problems encountered at English language teaching centers around the world. Ms. Rick was on a routine visit to U.S. Information Service posts. While in the Eastern Province of Saudi Arabia, she also visited the ESL programs of URM, KFU, ARAMCO, Northrop, SSOC, and Sperry Arabia.

The semi-finals for the Annual Speaking Contest for students of ELC were held early March. The ten finalists will compete at a later date before an audience of students, faculty and university officials. This year's competition has been organized by CLAUDE LESTER, RICHARD HARGROVE and PETER MACFARQUHAR.

Career Day at URM, an opportunity for students to explore the various careers available to them, was held mid-March. This very successful and popular event, the brain-child of DR. MOHAMMED MULLA, is held annually. This year's program was opened by DR. YOUSSEF AL-RASHED, Vice Rector for Academic Affairs; DR. KHEDAIR AL-KHEDAIR, Asst. Dean of Educational Services, gave the closing address. Films, exhibits, conferences, and other forms of information were supplied by the academic departments of URM and various business establishments in the Kingdom. The Career Day planning committee was headed by DR. JOHN HILLIS, assisted by ELC faculty members.

DR. MOHAMMED MULLA completed a brief faculty recruitment tour late March. He visited the United States and the United Kingdom to interview candidates for teaching posts at URM.

DR. EDWARD D. SULLIVAN, a representative of the consortium of ten universities which advises URM on academic matters, met recently with ELC faculty members during the consortium's annual visit. Dr. Sullivan, who is also the Avalon Professor of Humanities at Princeton University, was accompanied by RICHARD DOUGHERTY, Librarian, the University of Michigan, and WILLIAM MCGINN, Dean of the School of Architecture, Mississippi State University.

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ANNOUNCEMENTS . . .

1984 ABC Summer Workshop at Columbia University

June 25 to July 14, 1984

Organized by Teachers College, this workshop will explore models, practices and issues in language teacher preparation. Write to: John F. Fanselow; ABC Workshops Director; Box 63 ELI; Teachers College; Columbia University; New York, N.Y. 10027 USA.

1984 TESOL Summer Institute

At Oregon State University. Theme: Crossing Bridges. Participants can earn up to 9 graduate credits. Options of 1,3,4, or 6 weeks. If interested, write to: 1984 TSI; English Language Institute; Oregon State University; Corvallis, Oregon 97331 USA.

Fifth European Symposium on LSP

August 26 to 30, 1984

At Katholieke Universiteit Leuven. For information on this conference on Languages for Specific Purposes, write to: Prof. L.K. Engerls; Instituut voor Levende Talen; Katholieke Universiteit Leuven; Vesaliusstraat 21, B-3000; Leuven, Belgium.

Report on 'ESP in the Arab World' Conference

Middle East readers interested in reading a copy of the proceeding of this conference held August 1983 at the University of Aston at Birmingham and organised by John Swales may do so by writing to: Dr. Mohammed A. Mulla, Director of Preparatory Programs; University of Petroleum and Minerals; P.O. Box 7177; Dammam 31462; Saudi Arabia. A cheque for six pound fifty (British Sterling) to the order of John Swales is needed to defray costs.

Cultural Key Experiences

Call for cross-cultural experiences. Dr. Udo O.H. Jung (University of Marburg; Markt 23, D-3550; Federal Republic of Germany) is collecting descriptions and interpretations of insightful cross-cultural anecdotes. If interested in contributing, please include: date of the event; number of persons involved; those persons' sex, age and status relative to each other; place of the event; languages/dialects involved. Indicate the degree of mastery you have of the languages involved, how this could have influenced the events, and what other languages you speak. Type in English, French or German. Signed consent for story to be published is needed.



NO. 47 SUMMER 1984

TEAM

ENGLISH LANGUAGE CENTER

الفريق



UNIVERSITY OF PETROLEUM AND MINERALS
DHAHRAN • SAUDI ARABIA

TEAM

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FROM THE EDITOR

With this issue come some changes in our staffing. Because our production head, Gene Prince, has also had wide editorial responsibilities, the title of associate editor better and more properly describes his duties. Sadly, this issue is Gene's last as he will be leaving URM. William Phillips, who in addition to the circulation desk has been kept busy with production, will become associate editor with the start of the next academic year. Our production department welcomes the addition of Darion Hutchinson, who is also contributing a feature article for our autumn issue. We will surely miss the scrutinizing eye of Copy Editor Gerald Morriss and of his assistant, T. Stableford, both of whom will be leaving Saudi Arabia. John Welsh will sit at the copy desk and will be joined by Bob Hilden, a frequent contributor to the review pages of TEAM. Lee Tesdell, currently our ELC News Reporter, will move to the circulation desk. Our readers will certainly miss departing staff and will want to wish them the best.

As fate would have it, we were but a few days away from delivering our spring issue to the printer when damage to the main disk of our word processor brought about the loss of the entire issue. The villain? A speck of dust. After repairs, we frantically entered the issue once again and in a well-intentioned attempt to get the proofs to the printer and TEAM to you on time, we bypassed the copy department the second time around. A number of typos slipped by us. Our apologies to those contributors affected, to you our readers and finally to our fine copy team, who are completely blameless for the oversights in our last issue.

In this issue, Tim Johns of the University of Birmingham takes a look at the teaching of reading strategies. Mohamed-Osman Kambal of King Faisal University has written an article based on a paper accepted for the 1983 TESOL Convention. From Brazil is an article which examines some of the ESOL applications of Roger's theory of learning. Elana Hohl has written a description of the ESOL courses offered at the Dhahran Academy, a high school located next to URM for dependents of expatriate workers in the Kingdom. In the techniques section, Martin Watson, who coordinates our orientation English studies, offers an approach for oral practice in the grammar class.

The Thomas article on English as an International Auxiliary Language (TEAM 44 and 45) continues to attract wide attention. Liz Hamp-Lyons, editor of the International Exchange Section of the TESOL Newsletter, recently wrote wondering if we would be willing to share the article with her readers. We, of course, were delighted to honor her request.

In our next issue, we will bring you an article describing the Sultan Qaboos University project in Oman, an article describing the ESOL curriculum at Libya's Higher Institute of Electronics, and an article from URM identifying predictable errors that Arabic-speaking students make in English.

FEATURES

THE TEXT AND ITS MESSAGE AN APPROACH TO THE TEACHING OF READING STRATEGIES FOR STUDENTS OF DEVELOPMENT ADMINISTRATION

T.F. Johns
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In recent years one of the most important developments in the teaching of English as a Foreign Language has been the attention given to the development of a reading knowledge of the language for students who need access to information published in English. The need has been created by the world-wide increase in the number of students in secondary and tertiary education and by the unique position of English at the higher levels of education as the medium of written instruction in textbooks and as the dominant language of international communication. In many countries, English language teaching at school may have been poor preparation for reading in the student's subject area. In a more traditional syllabus, reading will have been of literary texts, and will probably have involved reading aloud, translation, and close examination of difficult points of vocabulary, idiom, and syntax. More modern methods will probably have concentrated on the development of oral skills by means of habit-formation drills within a restricted vocabulary and a limited range of syntactic patterns. The frequent failure of both such methods to produce competent readers of English may be contrasted with the success of the self-taught learner who, determined or obliged to read English texts on his subject, develops his own methods for puzzling them out. It would seem that among the characteristics of the self-taught learner that give him advantages over the school-taught learner are his motivation, familiarity with the subject matter which allows him to exploit redundancy and guess successfully, and his concentration on the message conveyed by a text rather than on details of the code. In this he would have a good deal in common with the successful language learners whose reading strategies Hosenfeld has compared with those of unsuccessful language learners (Hosenfeld, 1977). Hosenfeld found that her successful language learners tended: to have a positive self-image in approaching a reading task; to be able to keep the developing overall message within their span of attention and memory; and to be able to use the context of that message to guess unknown words and phrases, or to realise that it is unnecessary to know a particular word or phrase. Her unsuccessful language learners, on the other hand, tended: to have a negative self-image and to be easily discouraged; to refer to the glossary or dictionary immediately when they came up against a difficulty; to have poorly developed guessing strategies; and, processing the text in very small chunks, not to have its overall message within their span of attention or memory.

One inference to be drawn from Hosefeld's research, as from the work of psycholinguists such as Goodman (1967) and Smith (1971), who see the reading process as a type of guessing game in which readers are constantly matching their predictions against the unfolding text, is that it may be possible to train learners in successful reading strategies. In the field of EAP (English for Academic Purposes), what may be called the traditional method -- for example, in published materials such as the Oxford University Press English Studies Series -- is to select a number of reading texts usually simplified, within a particular subject area, and to append word lists, comprehension questions, and language practice exercises to them. There are two main criticisms that can be levelled at this approach. Firstly, in looking for passages which are short and self-contained, and which will not cause too much alarm or embarrassment to the language teacher without specialist training in the subject area, the tendency is to select semi-popular texts (the writer communicating with a wider audience, for example in scientific journalism) rather than academic texts (the writer communicating with students of the subject, for example in a text book; or with his peers, for example in a research paper). However, it is the latter the student will have to read and not the former. Secondly, there is the danger that the materials, by emphasising small points of linguistic and factual detail, and by encouraging reference to the glossary, may be training students in exactly those strategies which Hosenfeld has shown to be associated with unsuccessful language learning. A newer generation of materials -- for example those prepared by the UMESPP team at the University of Malaya (Cooper, 1975) -- has attempted to overcome these drawbacks by selecting a proportion of texts from the textbooks which students will have to read in their courses, and by training students explicitly in the strategies of successful reading, for example in perceiving the overall structure of the message, in developing the ability to predict and guess from context, and in skimming and scanning for information. While this work undoubtedly represents a considerable advance on what went before, there remain many unresolved practical and theoretical problems.

The first group of problems relates to the question of authenticity. It is by now generally accepted by practitioners of EAP that texts used to teach reading should be tampered with as little as possible, and that any simplified text should be used only as a stepping-stone to the real thing. However, there are two senses in which a text exploited for teaching purposes remains inauthentic. In the first place, it has been selected by the teacher or materials writer as being interesting or as exemplifying a particular point or points which he wishes to get across. There is the danger that if the factors which lead to the rejection of a certain text as unusable or unteachable are in any way related to the factors which make that text difficult for a student, a powerful -- and probably unnoticed -- source of distortion has already been introduced. Secondly, the text, by being incorporated in a language-teaching rather than a subject-teaching programme, is deprived of its authenticity of purpose. Within a subject-teaching programme, a text takes its place in a sequence of other teaching/learning activities (e.g. lectures, tutorials, and other texts), and has a certain significance in that sequence in terms of what is given and new, what the students is expected to do or to know as a result of reading the text, and so forth. A language-teaching programme deprives a text of these factors and these linkages which are always

present when true comprehension takes place. In the course of a full-time preessional programme, it may be possible to simulate the pedagogical placing of a text (Caddlin, Kirkwood & Moore, 1978), but a part-time withdrawal programme hardly allows such a simulation.

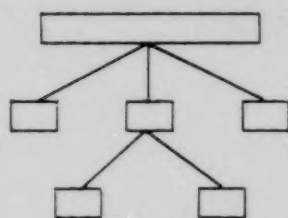
The second group of problems is related to the first, and revolves around the question of design. In general, the practice of communicative language teaching and attempts to systematise that practice (e.g. Munby, 1978) have outrun our understanding of how language is used to communicate, and how people acquire an ability to communicate in their mother tongue or in a foreign language. In this connexion, one of the major questions raised by the Hosenfeld research remains unanswered. If understanding and predicting the overall message conveyed by a text is crucial, how should that message best be described? In recent work, two main approaches may be discerned: following the distinction made by Kempson (1975) mainly at sentence level, and by Van Dijk (1977) at text level, we may describe one approach as being based on text pragmatics and the other as being based on text semantics.¹

The text pragmatics approach has, in its outlines, a good deal in common with the Classical and Renaissance Theory of Rhetoric, its rediscovery owing much to Speech Act Theory (Austin, 1962; Searle, 1969) and the analysis of spoken discourse (Sinclair & Coulthard, 1975). It views text as a type of conventionalised interaction between writer and reader, and attempts to analyse it in terms of strings of discourse functions, e.g. 'statement + justification' or 'generalisation + exemplification'. One of the many problems facing this approach is the tendency for functional labels to proliferate in the absence of a clear theoretical basis for establishing a hierarchy of functions and for distinguishing their realisations in text. For example, in the labels above drawn from different teaching materials, should 'exemplification' be classified separately from, or as a sub-variety of, 'justification'? An approach to text pragmatics which finds a theoretical basis for avoiding the heedless scattering of labels is the work of Angela Tadros (1978) who, working with texts drawn from a particular subject-area -- economics -- has examined the discursial expectancies set up by the writer. Apart from explicit predictive markers (e.g., 'There are three reasons why this should be so...'), she identifies implicit markers which derive from reader/writer interaction and the nature of argument in the subject. One example is the system of writer involvement and withdrawal which allows the reader to predict from the statement 'It has been claimed by many authors that...' (writer's withdrawal) that 'writer's rebuttal' will follow. Another general system identified by Tadros derives from the use by economists of a real and an imaginary world, the latter being set up to simplify the features of reality for the sake of argument. Thus the marking of a section of text as hypothetical (e.g., 'Let us assume...') predicts that the writer will move towards a generalisation which can be applied to the real world. In this connexion, it may be suggested that there is a related system of real vs.

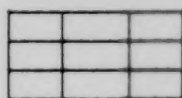
¹In the author's view, text is describable in formal terms, both text pragmatics and text semantics, being regarded as functions of text, to be related to the formal description through interpretation and realisation rules. Compare this with Widdowson's distinction between 'text' and 'discourse' (Widdowson, 1973).

imaginary, common in the applied social sciences, in which the writer negotiates the argument between what does happen in the world (descriptive) and what ought to happen (evaluative). Tadros's work, which is still in progress, is in the present writer's opinion an example of the hard analysis which remains to be done if text pragmatics is to provide an adequate basis for the teaching of reading.

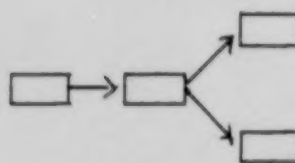
The second approach -- that of text semantics -- is concerned centrally with the truth and falsity of statements which can be derived, not from individual propositions in the text, but from the text as a whole and, crucially, from the cross-referential relationships (equivalence, inclusion, exclusion) set up within the text (Palek, 1968). While the text pragmatic approach, being concerned with the moment by moment interaction between writer and reader, has to date been described basically in linear terms, the structure of semantic relationships (from now on referred to as the information structure of the text) can be described adequately only in non-linear terms, and may be modelled by means of an n-dimensional diagram. This is, in fact, a concept already implicit and familiar in the information transfer type of exercise incorporated in many recent EAP teaching materials (e.g. the Focus series edited by Widdowson and Allen and the Nucleus series edited by Bates and Dudley-Evans, as well as the UMESPP materials). In these materials three main types of information-structure are identified, the corresponding diagrams being the tree-diagram, the matrix, and the flow-chart.



Tree-Diagram



Matrix



Flow-Chart

One of the unresolved problems raised by this approach is that it tends to take for granted the relationship between the non-linear structure of information and its realisation in linear text, i.e., the way in which the writer negotiates his way through that structure, and the effect this has on the pragmatic organisation of the text, and on its predictability.

The remainder of this paper outlines an attempt to solve some of the problems indicated above within the framework of one class provided by the English for Overseas Students Unit of Birmingham University (Johns, 1975). The students are drawn from those following a one-year course for the Diploma in Development Administration in the Development Administration Group of the Institute of Local Government Studies. The course is post-experience, most of the participants being administrators in their late twenties to their early forties from Africa, Latin America, the Indian subcontinent and the Far East. A majority have English as a Second Language, and many have used English as a medium of written communication. Nevertheless, even these may have difficulties with the linguistic demands of the course. One participant showed considerable insight into his problem with reading as follows:

When I came to Britain I thought it would at least be easy to do the reading required, since every day in my Ministry at home I have to read and act on numbers of memoranda written in English. However, I have found it difficult to get through everything on our reading lists. The problem is that I know how memos are written, and what I am supposed to do as a result of reading them. But I don't understand the sort of English used in the books recommended by our lecturers, and I don't know what I'm supposed to do with them.

From discussion with students and members of staff (including the departmental librarians), and from some previous research in observing and recording seminars in the Development Administration Group, it has been possible to reach some general conclusions about the sequence and significance of reading in the course. While there is a good deal of variation between different subjects and different lecturers, it appears that the most usual pattern is for reading to be regarded as follow-up to lectures and as input to seminars and writing. Most lecturers supply fairly lengthy reading lists, and also some indication of which are the most important texts, and which deal with particular aspects of the subject. The students tend to find the lists daunting, and many would like more guidance on these lines. Which texts the student, in fact, reads often depends on which are available at the time he goes to the departmental library. Subject lecturers expect that students should at least be able to grasp the basic argument, to relate that argument to the framework of the subject as expounded in the lectures, and, most importantly, to evaluate the argument or see its application to their own countries. The basic pedagogic sequence tends to be from the general to the specific and from theory to practice, although some teachers in the field of development studies advocate reversing these priorities to some extent through a case study approach (Henderson, forthcoming).

In the light of the above background information it was decided, in setting up a subject-specific English class for the Development Administration Group, to concentrate on reading skills in the first term, and on the teaching of writing skills in the second term. The second term's work involves team-teaching between the subject teachers and the language teacher and has been described elsewhere (Johns & Dudley-Evans, 1978). The time available for subject-specific English teaching is limited (45 minutes a week in the first term, making a total of seven-and-a-half contact hours), and in view of the intensive nature of the work and the need for feedback from individual students, it is necessary to restrict the numbers attending to a maximum of ten from the fifty to sixty students on the course. When the number of students who wish to attend the class is greater than ten, we select those with the lowest scores on the Assessment and Diagnostic Test taken by all overseas students on arrival at the University. If, as may be charged, we are giving an unfair advantage to certain students, at least these will, we believe, include those most at risk of failing the course without some additional assistance.

In the first four of five sessions of the first term, training is given in basic reading strategies: in 1978 these included guessing of vocabulary from context, prediction of a writer's intention (the work here heavily influenced by the Tadros research in text pragmatics), and perception of information

structure underlying text. These strategies are then applied to texts selected by the students themselves on a week-to-week basis as ones which they have found particularly difficult to understand, the principle of student-selection solving at a stroke many of the problems of teacher-selection and full authenticity previously mentioned. Since the difficulties revealed in the second half of the term are the basis for modifying, on a year-by-year basis, the basic training in the first half, and all the texts used for that training have previously been student-selected (examples are shown as texts A-D at the end of the paper), it may be useful to start from the features of those texts and the difficulties revealed by discussion with the students.

The first general feature of the texts worth noting is that they cover a wide range of subjects in the fields of administration, economics, finance, politics, and sociology, and have been written by authors with a wide range of academic backgrounds. In 1977, for example, one of the texts selected was written by a geologist on the appraisal of land resources. The difficulty was not simply that he used a large number of unfamiliar technical terms for types of rocks, land-forms, and so forth, but that the students found it difficult to perceive the conceptual framework -- or, more particularly, the taxonomic system -- underlying those terms. This wide spread of subject-matter reflects our experience from other postgraduate courses for which the Unit has provided subject-specific English classes. Students in the Department of Transportation and Environmental Planning, for example, find their engineering texts relatively easy; their difficulties lie with the novel areas of economics, sociology, and applied aesthetics. The pedagogic implication is clear, though often overlooked: such students need a good deal of flexibility in their approach to reading and learning, and any preessional language training or testing programme which identifies them as 'administration students' or 'engineering students' and concentrates on texts within the narrow definition of those subjects will fail to provide that flexibility. This conclusion supports the approach of programmes such as UMESPP whose materials include a considerable common-core component for students of all subjects, and which also treat 'learning to learn from reading' as inseparable from 'learning to read'.

Investigating why the texts are difficult for the students is the central and most delicate task of the teacher. Initially, students will identify their difficulty in terms of the words they do not know or are unsure of and hope that if the language teacher teaches them enough words, all their problems will disappear. This is a point of view which should not be dismissed lightly. As has been said, the approach to the teaching of vocabulary in the basic training period is through the development of guessing strategies, the main technique used being to force students to guess, and then to get them to compare the evidence for their guesses, the teacher not at first saying which guesses are right and which are wrong. However, there seems to be a threshold effect by which, when more than approximately 50 per 1,000 words are unknown, perception of overall structure may be effectively blocked, which in turn means that there is not enough in the way of context to allow successful guessing. Another vocabulary difficulty worth noting arises from the density of metaphorical usage in many of the texts. If, as Vico first proposed, metaphor is an essential step in the development of man's apprehension and understanding of the world about him, it is natural that the social sciences

(most of which have developed their conceptual framework relatively recently) should be rich in metaphorical use of language. See, for example, 'give too free a rein to' (Text B), one of the interesting set of metaphors concerned with the concept of control which derives from horse-riding.

One of the most striking features of a number of the student-selected texts is that they are difficult to read both for the overseas student and for the native speaker, their difficulty lying not so much in the subject-matter, but -- to put the matter baldly -- in their being badly written. There has been in this century a distaste among linguists and applied linguists for labelling language as good or bad. However, the notion of pragmatic prediction may allow us to put such value judgments on a more secure basis, the bad text from this point of view being one in which the writer fails to set up a basis for reader prediction, or fails without apparent reason to fulfill the predictions he appears to set up. Consider the short and relatively painless chapter opening of Text A. The reader might like to try the experiment of covering up the second sentence and trying to guess what it will be from the evidence of the first. Most native and non-native speakers on whom the writer has tried the experiment have predicted that the author will continue with some sort of expansion or justification beginning, for example, 'Only from such a viewpoint is it possible to see that...': none have come anywhere near the author's actual continuation with its apparent contrast (but why is it being made?) and its tautologous proposition, which the present writer is unable to relate semantically to what goes before or what comes after. The challenge of such a text to the teacher of reading strategies is that the only effective strategy is to abandon rapidly any attempt to process the first two sentences, and to pick out a string of lexical items to represent what appears to be the message of the remainder: (all) large cities -- ferment and change; (e.g.) old cities -- obsolescence and shifting populations; new cities -- staggering growth and demands for new facilities.

Turning to the main body of student-selected texts which are at least readable in the sense that the opening of Text A is not, experience to date suggests that, providing the density of unknown vocabulary falls -- or can be reduced -- below the threshold level, the main problem lies in the area of text semantics, and in particular the non-linear structuring of information. In the texts studied, the types of information structure represented by the tree-diagram, the matrix, and the flow-chart appear to be very common.² The problem of training students to handle comprehension of text above the level of the sentence involves developing a set towards information structure, and the negotiation of that structure in text. Some typical problems are illustrated by Texts A-D.

Texts B and C are similar in that, for both, the information structure is a 3 x 3 matrix, the major difference being that Text B shows vertical

²It may be suggested, not too seriously, that the particular prevalence of matrix-structure in texts in the field of administration (see, for example, Texts A and B) may derive from the tendency of writers on administration to be administrators or ex-administrators themselves, and for the matrix to be particularly attractive to the methodical and pigeon-holing bureaucratic mind.

negotiation of the matrix, and Text C horizontal negotiation. Text B may be diagrammed as follows, the dotted line indicating the negotiation:

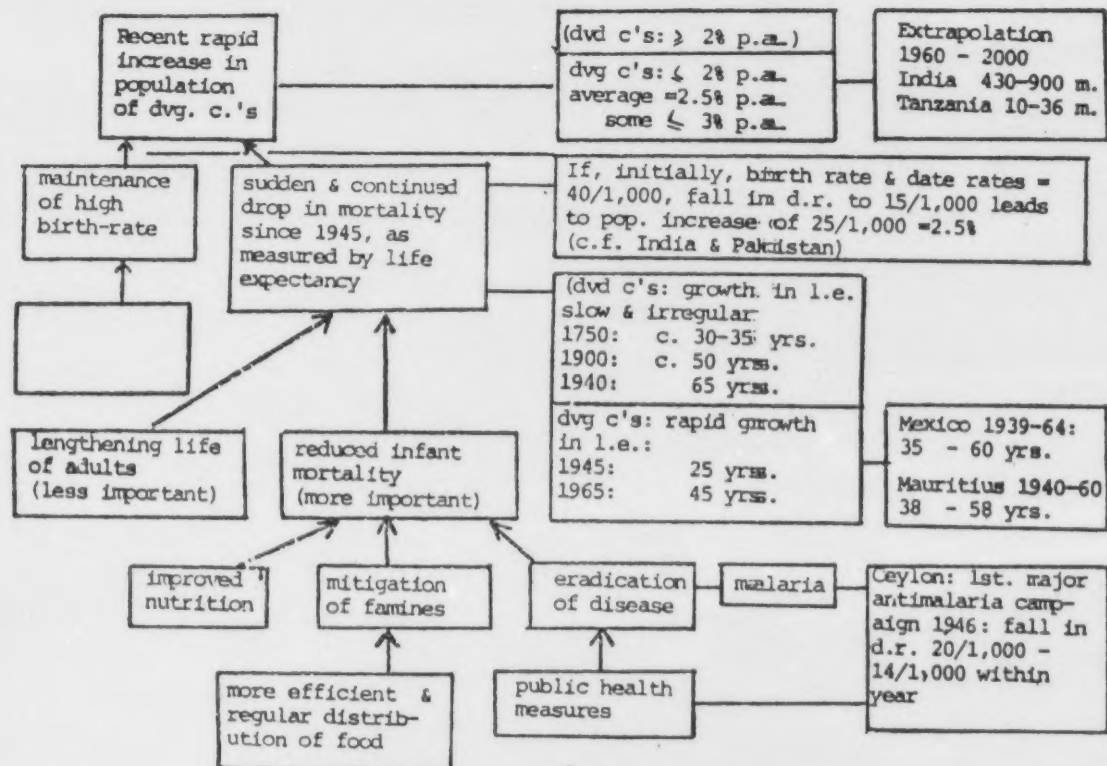
Power of local authorities	Example	Disadvantages for developing country
1 'universal' ↓	Germany ↓	Gives too much freedom ↓
2 'statutory' ↓	Britain ↓	Requires special legislation for local needs ↓
3 'integrated' ↓	France ↓	Inhibits independent action

In general, vertically negotiated matrix structure may be more difficult to grasp than horizontally negotiated structure. Notice, in particular, the greater dependence on cross-reference to obtain correct matching of what is being talked about. In the second column, as students have pointed out, the matching of the examples would have been easier if 'respectively' had been inserted, while the third column shows an interesting but potentially confusing type of elegant variation in which the author departs from the expected downward negotiation. In so doing he issues a challenge to the reader's processing of the information structure up to that point by using a different means of cross-reference for each cell: 'the third system' (1.23: cross-reference to enumeration); 'At the other extreme, the principle of universality' (double cross-reference to the structure of the matrix and to the description of the systems in the first column; and 'The British system...' (cross-reference to the example in the second column). These difficulties of cross-reference are such that even native speakers when untrained in looking for information structure find it hard to answer a question which requires reference to the reader's conceptualisation of the matrix rather than to the linear organization of information in the text (e.g., 'What are the disadvantages for a developing country of the German system of local government?').

Text C with its horizontal negotiation (the reader may care to try drawing the diagram for himself) appears to be easier than Text B. The problem here (as with any matrix horizontally negotiated) lies not in the matching of what is being talked about but in matching what is ascribed to each system: in this text, as in many others, the advantages and disadvantages of each. Unless the reader grasps the matrix structure of the argument, he is unlikely to notice that both the advantages and disadvantages given for the second and third methods of representation share a number of points in common, or that in discussing the third method the author shifts the nature of his argument, the advantages now being implicitly evaluated against the disadvantages since the former are hypothetical ('Such an arrangement depends on the hypothesis that...') and the latter, from the experience of Pakistan, are real.

Text D is an example of information structure which may be represented by a flow-chart -- a backward-chained argument of some complexity in this case. Also, the text is typical of many in which the student finds it difficult to see the relationship between the main line of the argument and supporting evidence and examples. As a general method for handling texts of this sort, a diagramming method is presented by which the main line is identified first and represented on the vertical dimension, and supporting evidence shown on the horizontal dimension. On the basis of the resulting diagram (see below), it is possible to discuss general questions such as:

1. Which of the information boxes is least important, and which could be omitted without disturbing the writer's argument;
2. Where the student could insert information of his own from his country (c.f., the general importance in the course of relating the writer's argument to the student's experience);
3. How the author negotiates the argument in paragraph structure and in interparagraph relationships (note, for example, the parallelism between the first three paragraphs and the shift in the fourth paragraph);
4. The predictive significance of the 'empty box';
5. The ambiguity of 'basic economic factors' which can be inserted into the diagram in more than one way.



It should be emphasised that, as with most research done on the ground for immediate application to a teaching situation, the work reported in this paper and the conclusions reached are tentative. Among the questions which may be worth pursuing are, firstly, the use of the approach for improving writing skills as well as reading skills. In the second term's work in the Development Administration Group, there has been a spin-off in the improvement of the students' ability to plan writing, through the use of non-linear diagramming techniques, and to organise paragraph structure. Secondly, it would be interesting to know how far the crucial feature of student-selection of texts is applicable at other levels (for example, secondary or undergraduate levels) and how far the training or set towards information structure of argument is applicable to other subject areas. As far as the latter is concerned, work on lecture comprehension with students of Plant Biology and Transportation and Highway Engineering (Johns & Dudley-Evans, 1978) suggests that their problems lie in very much the same area, and also that the three basic types of information structure have a similar importance. Finally, and more speculatively, it would be valuable to know how far students' reading problems, when seen in this perspective, may be related to cross-cultural differences in underlying patterns of argument (Kaplan, 1966). The author would be grateful for comments on these or any other points raised in the paper.

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TEXTS

Text A. To be comprehended in its entirety, the metropolis must be viewed from the air. Back on earth, its pulsing heart lies in the central city. Large and vital cities have ferment and change in common, regardless of their shape, wealth, or political system. Obsolescence and shifting populations challenge the capabilities of old cities. New cities confront staggering growth and demands for new facilities. (from A.H. Walsh. 1969. The Urban Challenge to Government. New York: Praeger, for the Institute of Public Administration.)

Text B. In constructing or re-constructing the local government system the first question to be settled is the definition of the powers of local authorities. For the brief general description, which alone is possible here, three broad varieties will be mentioned. The first is where the constitution grants 'universal' powers -- that is, local authorities may perform any function not specifically forbidden them by law or not exclusively the power of another authority. There is also a further general limitation to these powers, namely that the powers exercised by a local council must be within the conception of being for the good government of the locality. This is a system which, short of complete independence which is impossible if government is to

be local, gives the greatest scope for the growth of local government functions and is the easiest way in which each authority can extend its obligatory functions to include activities which seem particularly appropriate for the local area. The second broad category is where the local authorities can only perform those functions specifically granted them by general statute -- any extensions for particular localities must have a specific statute for that district. The third division is where the local authority is an integrated part of the hierarchy of administration, subject to ministerial orders as well as statutes. These divisions are broadly typified by the systems of Germany, Britain and France, and given the objectives already outlined, none is entirely satisfactory for wholesale transfer to developing countries. The third system inhibits the independent action of local authorities, subordinating them too strictly to the ministries of central government, not only in the early -- the embryonic -- stages of the system, but as a long term plan. At the other extreme, the principle of universality would give too free a rein to most growing local government systems. The British system on the other hand is not satisfactory as it requires the passing of special legislation by individual authorities for variations to suit local needs and abilities. (from H. Maddick. 1963. Democracy, Decentralisation and Development. Bombay: Asia Publishing House.)

Text C. The composition and forms of representation of representative bodies frequently adopted in developing countries have a number of special features, the most striking being the following:

1. Members of the central government field administration (health officer, education officer, community development officer, representatives of the Ministry of Public Works, etc.) are ex-officio members of local councils. This system is widespread. It provides the necessary expertise for council decisions, promotes deliberations between local representatives and technical staff, and facilitates proper coordination between local and central policy-making. Its disadvantage, of course, is the considerable risk that officials will dominate the local representatives.

2. The central government or its regional representatives choose some or all council members from the local community. This is by no means a new method, having been used in many European countries (especially France) until as late as the middle of the 19th century. Its advantages are that it reduces the chances of political strife between the commune and the central authorities, and that, as is often claimed, the councillors thus appointed are more likely to be of good calibre. On the other hand it tends to decrease responsibility and possibly responsiveness; council members may also be only marginally representative of the local community, if at all, and may therefore pursue policies contrary to the general interest. Moreover, governments often tend to appoint people of a conservative cast of mind, thus introducing a devitalising element into local government.

3. Finally, developing nations show a notable leaning towards indirect representation, i.e., a council composed of representatives of the councils on the next lower level situated in its territory. Such an arrangement depends on the hypothesis that: a) indirect representation ensures better quality of the higher councils; b) it promotes coordination between the two levels of local government.

There are several examples of indirect representation being introduced as part of new local government systems in developing nations. Perhaps its most systematic application was found in Pakistan before 1969 when the chairmen of the lower councils (union councils and town councils) were ex-officio members of the higher Tehsil or Thana councils, the chairmen of which were in turn ex-officio members of the district councils.

However, the disturbances in Pakistan in early 1969 seem to have brought to light some basic weaknesses in this highly systematised indirect representation. Firstly, it reduced the total number of elected representatives. Secondly, it may create an elected elite which is insufficiently responsive to the needs and wishes of the local population. And, finally, a general disadvantage is that elected officials in a number of councils are overburdened. (from A.F. Leemans. 1970. Changing Patterns of Local Government. The Hague: International Union of Local Authorities.)

Text D. Is is well known that the population of the world is increasing faster than ever before and that the present, rapid rate of growth is a very recent phenomenon, going back no more than twenty years or so. Although some of the industrial countries have also seen an increase in the rate of population growth, this has only exceptionally been as much as 2 percent per year, whilst in the underdeveloped countries the rate of increase has been almost uniformly at rates of 2 percent or more. By the mid-60's it was rising typically by 2.5 percent whilst in some countries the increase was proceeding at a rate of 3 percent and even higher. If present rates were to continue then the population of India, for instance, which was some 430 million in 1960 would rise to over 900 million by the end of the century and that of Tanzania would increase from ten million to thirty-six million over the same period.

What has unleashed the great demographic acceleration in the underdeveloped countries has been a rather sudden and continued drop in mortality after the Second World War. Since the crude death rate is influenced by the age structure, the fall in mortality is better measured by the life expectancy at birth which expresses the average length of life of a new born infant under prevailing conditions of mortality. In the Western world the increase in life expectancy was slow and irregular. It was probably 30-35 years in the middle of the eighteenth century; in 1900 it was about fifty years and not until 1940 did it reach sixty-five. In the underdeveloped countries that increase in life expectancy has come about much more quickly. For example in Mexico it rose from thirty-six years to sixty years between 1939 and 1964, and in Mauritius it is thought to have gone from thirty-eight years in 1940 to fifty-eight years in 1960. Taking underdeveloped countries as a whole it has been estimated that the average expectation of life at birth rose from twenty-five years to forty-five years during the twenty years following the end of the Second World War.

The remarkable increase in population in the underdeveloped countries has come about, broadly, as a result of a marked fall in the death rate without any corresponding fall in the birth rate. If, as was not untypical, both birth and death rates were around forty per thousand of the population to start with, and the death rate then fell to fifteen per thousand, this would lead to an increase in the population by twenty-five per thousand, or 2.5 percent.

Although these figures are merely illustrative they do in fact correspond to what has happened since the Second World War in many underdeveloped countries, including some of the largest and most densely populated such as India and Pakistan.

Both the rapid fall in the death rate and the maintenance of the previous high birth rate require explanation. The fall in the death rate has really to be seen as comprising two elements: a lengthening of the life of adults and a fall in infant mortality. The life span of adults is not so very different from what it was before and the fall in the death rate has been particularly concentrated in the first year of life. The rapid rise in population must therefore be seen primarily as a consequence of the fall in infant mortality and to a lesser extent as resulting from a greater expectation of life once the critical first year of life has been survived.

The marked increase in life expectancy at birth cannot be attributed to one 'explanatory variable' alone. Part of it is due to basic economic improvements. More efficient and regular distribution of food has averted food shortages and mitigated famines, and improved nutrition may account for much of the spectacular reduction of infant mortality. But post-war public health measures have also been extremely effective in underdeveloped areas. The eradication of malaria by spraying of insecticides has had spectacular effects in many countries in which malaria was previously endemic and lethal, especially for children. In Ceylon, where the death rate had already fallen to twenty per thousand, the first major antimalaria campaign with DDT in 1964 coincided with a fall in the death rate from twenty to fourteen per thousand within a year. (from W. Elkan. 1973. An Introduction to Development Economics. Harmondsworth, U.K.: Penguin.)

TEACHING ENGLISH IN THE CONTEXT OF ARABICIZATION

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The change from English to Arabic as a medium of instruction in Arab schools and universities has for many years now enjoyed considerable interest among Arab educationists and language policymakers. Social, political and psychological factors have been suggested to support the desirability of such a change in language policy. The Arab League Educational, Cultural and Scientific Organization (ALECSO) sponsored a number of conferences to study the issues involved and to reach a strategy for unified action.

Moreover, the question of the language of instruction has concerned educators in a number of non-Arab countries, particularly developing countries. Noss (1967) discussed the importance of this issue for higher education and national development in Southeast Asian countries and defended the call for using native languages instead of the European languages traditionally adopted there. Similarly, the choice of a suitable medium of instruction has been the topic of extensive research in a number of countries including the United States, Canada and Ireland (Troike and Modiano, 1975; Tucker, 1978).

Factors involved in this issue are not only economic; they are also cultural, religious and political. There is no denying that any language can be effectively used as a medium of instruction to members of its community provided that it is developed enough to handle the concepts, values, ideas and information to be acquired. Arabic is no exception.

This paper aims primarily to investigate the possible impact of Arabicization on the teaching of English to university students both at Khartoum University in the Sudan and King Faisal University in Saudi Arabia. Although the question of Arabicization was not approached in exactly the same manner in each case, the possible effects on the English language programs are comparable. To a lesser degree, this investigation will attempt to highlight some of the salient aspects of Arabicization with a view to suggesting an acceptable strategy of action throughout the Arab world.

BACKGROUND

In the Sudan and Saudi Arabia, Arabic is the official language. However, while it is the mother tongue of the majority of Sudanese (according to the 1955 census), it is spoken by all Saudis as their mother tongue. In both countries Arabic is the language of administration, the mass media, and local business and trade.

ARABIC AND ENGLISH IN THE EDUCATIONAL SYSTEM

In both countries Arabic is the language of instruction in all government schools up to the higher secondary level. English is taught as the first

foreign language and children in both countries start to study it at the age of thirteen, i.e., when they first enter the seventh grade. They continue to study it until they finish their twelfth year of schooling.

English plays a more important role in education at post-secondary levels. All academic subjects in the scientific colleges are taught in English. Probably most of the research conducted is reported in English as well. This pivotal role of English will be discussed in more detail as we go along. But now it may be appropriate to give an idea of university education in both countries.

UNIVERSITY EDUCATION IN THE SUDAN

Post-secondary education in the Sudan is undertaken by a number of universities and technical institutes. The Sudanese universities are the University of Khartoum, the Islamic University of Omdurman and the recently established Universities of Juba and Gezira. The oldest of the four, the University of Khartoum was established in 1956, succeeding the former University College of Khartoum. It has a student population of about ten thousand and a teaching staff of approximately 650, one third of whom are expatriates of various nationalities.

The University of Khartoum comprises a number of colleges each having several departments within it. The scientific colleges are Science, Engineering, Medicine, Veterinary Medicine and Agriculture. The social studies colleges are Arts, Education, Law, and Economics and Social Studies. In addition, there is a number of research units and institutes.

The academic courses lead to the Bachelor and Master degree in arts or sciences, as well as to the Doctor of Philosophy degree.

In the University of Khartoum, the medium of instruction is English, with the exception of a few subjects in the colleges of Arts and Law. In both the Universities of Juba and Gezira, English is used exclusively.

The universities at Juba and Wad Medani (capital of Gezira Province which has the largest agricultural schemes in the Sudan) were both established in 1976. Juba University comprises three colleges: Natural Resources (Agriculture, Veterinary Medicine, and Forestry), Economics and Social Studies, and Education. Classes started in September 1977 with a student enrollment of 132 students in the three colleges. The members of the teaching staff are Sudanese and expatriates, mainly Europeans and Americans. The Gezira University started with three colleges, namely Medicine, Agriculture, and Economics and Rural Environment. The first class of students enrolled for the academic year 1977/78 numbered 180 students. The duration of the undergraduate programs is four years at Juba University, while it is five years at the Gezira University where the first year is a preparatory one.

UNIVERSITY EDUCATION IN SAUDI ARABIA

There are seven universities in Saudi Arabia that offer courses of study leading to undergraduate and graduate degrees in both the sciences and the

humanities. However, the focus of this study is on King Faisal University (KFU). Established in 1975, KFU, which lies in the Eastern Province of Saudi Arabia, now comprises five colleges:

- a) The College of Medicine and Medical Science;
- b) The College of Architecture and Planning;
- c) The College of Agricultural Sciences and Food;
- d) The College of Veterinary Medicine and Animal Resources;
- e) The College of Education.

King Faisal University has a student population of approximately three thousand which is taught by Saudi and expatriate faculty members. Although KFU aims at adopting Arabic as a medium of instruction in its four scientific colleges, English is actually the medium at present. However, the University decided to start Arabicizing the basic science courses in the College of Agricultural Sciences and Food in 1981. In shifting from English to Arabic, the following two points are to be considered:

- a) the choice of the subjects to be Arabicized and;
- b) the realization that English remains a compulsory university requirement for students.

The Courses Arabicized. Four basic science courses in Arabic were implemented during the first year of the new policy; these were general botany, general zoology, general chemistry and mathematics. The Vice-Dean of the College of Agricultural Sciences and Food recently reported that there had been no difficulty in teaching these courses in Arabic and that as a result of this change of medium, the scope of the subjects taught had been greatly enlarged. A general observation he had was that the students' level of attainment had greatly improved.

Of particular interest at this point is the attitude of the faculty to Arabicization. There was agreement amongst the faculty members that a policy of gradual implementation be pursued for subsequent years. However, there was also agreement that some problems will be encountered when specialization courses are Arabicized.

The Effect of Arabicization on English Teaching. Arabicization of courses at KFU has resulted in a reduction in the number of contact hours in English from thirty hours a week to only six. There is no doubt that this will reduce the opportunities students will have to benefit from those journals and reference materials available only in English. It might also mean that the goal of teaching English effectively cannot be successfully achieved. It is to be hoped, however, that before long this imbalance will be redressed.

Prior to the Arabacization of the general science courses in the College of Agricultural Sciences and Food, incoming students had to take two English courses: a) a general intensive course totalling 480 contact hours over the sixteen teaching weeks of the first semester and b) an ESP course totalling 96 contact hours during the second semester. The general course had the four traditional components of listening, speaking, reading and writing. Its overall objective was to raise the students' proficiency before embarking on the scientific English course.

With Arabicization in effect and the number of contact hours in English reduced drastically, the English teacher naturally feels frustrated, fearing that students' proficiency cannot be improved substantially. A more positive attitude, however, would be to redefine the teaching objectives and make them realistic. Given the relatively small amount of time the program now allots to English, the teachers should decide on the most important skills to teach and how to teach them effectively. This also means that our teaching methods and practices have to be modified accordingly to prevent any further loss of teaching time. Tucker (1978) called attention to this need to define "a set of locally appropriate goals..."

Another important task ESL teachers should perform, particularly those in such an Arabicized situation, will be to try and find local solutions to the problems encountered. Two areas of necessary research and experimentation are those related to a) teaching factors and b) learning factors.

A. Teaching Factors. One teaching factor worthy of serious consideration is class size. The smaller the size of the group, the more time is available to each individual student. Another factor is the use of individualized instruction. Thirdly, and probably a more radical approach to teaching is "informal" instruction, meaning an attempt to reduce the rigidity of the traditional classroom setting. It also means more flexibility as regards materials and times. These factors are here very roughly characterized, and they need to be further refined before determining their usefulness.

B. Learning Factors. Among the various learning factors to be considered are: a) students' motivation and how it can be stimulated and; b) students' learning strategies as regards, for instance, vocabulary acquisition and improving speaking, reading and writing abilities.

CONCLUDING REMARKS

From the general standpoint of teaching in Arabic, one should mention a few relevant points. First, there is no doubt that Arabicization of courses in Arabic-speaking countries is both feasible and desirable. Second, foreign language instruction in this context should not be neglected. On the contrary, care should be taken to improve the standard of the foreign language rather than allow it to deteriorate as a result of a shift in language emphasis. Third, it should be remembered that maintaining a high proficiency in the second language may be helpful, at least at that stage where a great deal of translation is inevitable. This is particularly true in view of the fact that English is and will probably remain for years to come the dominant language of science and technology.

SUGGESTIONS FOR A UNIFIED STRATEGY OF ARABICIZATION

The experience of adopting Arabic as a medium of instruction in place of English or French in Arab schools or universities has proved to be an enormous educational task for one country. Hence, there is a need for a joint effort by Arab countries to give priority to such a language policy change.

The first issue to be resolved is: how much Arabicization? The answer to this question will help delineate realistic objectives. Once this is done, issues concerning implementation can be tackled.

This obviously leads to the second question: should the change be gradual or drastic? There can be little doubt that a gradual change is less disruptive and more conducive to better results with minimum cost. This is so because it allows for constant evaluation and revision, which may certainly lead to success.

The third consideration is the effect Arabicization will have on the teaching and learning of foreign languages. In an age where developing nations need scientific and technological expertise from Europe and America, there is a need to teach those languages which make this knowledge accessible. Enabling our students to achieve a satisfactory level of proficiency in these languages should remain an important goal.

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WHAT ABOUT THE STUDENT?

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Taking a glance at the ESP literature available in Brazil and in some reference collections elsewhere, we have noticed that much has been written on course design, materials preparation, reading skills, testing, etc., but not very much has been said about the role of the ESP student in these components of an ESP programme.

In order to engage the students more meaningfully in the main stages of an ESP programme, we have incorporated some of the principles of learning suggested by Rogers (1969):

1. Human beings have a natural potentiality for learning;
2. Significant learning takes place when the subject matter is perceived by the student as having relevance to his own needs;
3. When threat to the self is low, experience can be perceived in different ways and learning can proceed;
4. Much significant learning is acquired through doing;
5. Learning is facilitated when the student participates responsibly in the learning process;
6. Self-initiated learning which involves the learner's whole self -- feelings as well as intellect -- is the most lasting and pervasive;
7. The most socially useful learning in the modern world is learning how to learn, a continuing openness to new experience and incorporation of the resulting changes.

1. COURSE DESIGN

Apparently much more has been done on 'needs analysis' than on 'wants analysis'. It may be that needs analysis is central to the design of any ESP course. However, neglecting the latter reflects an over-concentration on the learning process rather than on the learner. It is common, when we notice that students are somehow dissatisfied, to check or re-evaluate all the teaching steps, but we sometimes forget to ask ourselves: What about the student? Are we giving room to his or her wants? What is needed, we feel, is some interaction between the ESP teacher and the student prior to the course.

Let us then devise a few activities to include the student in the course design.

1.1 Open Meetings. Students could meet the ESP coordinator and teachers and talk openly about their needs and wants (a subject teacher could be present

at this meeting). Hopefully, a compromise would result.

1.2 Interviews. Interviews could be set up in which the students could discuss their needs, wants and their reading habits. They might feel more at ease to expose their specific problems, frustrations, idiosyncrasies and their more intimate feelings about learning/language learning in private.

2. CLASSROOM ACTIVITIES

It is our belief that an ESP course will offer more opportunity for students' participation than a general English course because the student will have been involved in negotiating the required skills, and new, more authentic role playing may take place. On the other hand, reading classes run the risk of becoming passive and uninteresting, as the activities tend to be very limited and repetitious. ESP is potentially interactional, notwithstanding the fact that this interaction is not often attained in the classroom. At this point we intend to give some suggestions as to how to maximize student participation in classroom activities.

2.1 Classroom Management/Planning. Students can have a share in the planning of what will be taught as well as in how to teach. In fact, their participation can take place either at the course design stage or during the course (when they could have some kind of 'sample teaching'). We have a tendency to underestimate students' capacity for reasonable consideration of how instruction is conducted, yet their intuitions and insights as learners/language learners may be of great help.

2.2.1 Seminars. Students would be given different texts on the same theme and would be asked to work on them in groups. A certain time would be allowed for work on the texts. After discussion, each group would nominate a colleague to report orally in Portuguese on the content of the text, on their reading problems, their feelings towards the text, and their criticism of it. Then there would be a group discussion. Identical texts could be handed out to different groups to get their responses.

2.2.2 Visiting specialist. Much scientific work (papers, articles dissertations, research) has been produced by Brazilian university teachers and some of this work has been published in English in well-known journals. Incidentally, this work is often ignored by the university community, the ESP students and teachers. We think that these papers can be an excellent source of reading materials, as they can be used in ways that 'foreign' materials would never give us a chance to. For instance, we can provide the students with one of these scientific papers, discuss it in class -- student/student, student/ESP teacher -- and then invite the subject specialist (who might well be one of their professors) for further discussion.

There are two other elements that we think should be required rather than optional components in a reading class, viz., reading awareness and critical reading.

2.2.3 Reading awareness. Students should be able to discuss their failures and achievements in reading a text. They should also be aware of what they are doing and be able to express why they are doing it. Excellent material has been

produced by the University of Uberlandia, with well-designed self-evaluation activities, and the self-access project by the Federal University of Santa Catarina, which emphasizes reading awareness, is also excellent. We think this aspect is pedagogically very important because, when we arouse student awareness of an ESP text, we also arouse their awareness of the people around them and of the world at large.

We think that students should be encouraged to talk freely about their reading problems, though we are quite aware that they may be too inhibited to do this. Besides self-evaluation activities, students can also interview one another about the difficulties they had on a given text or on a text they themselves selected.

2.2.4 Critical reading. Though not common in language courses, the acquisition of thinking skills is fundamental to significant learning in reading courses and offers a place for authentic interaction in a classroom environment. Emphasis on critical reading is therefore crucial in enhancing student participation. Choice of texts plays an important role in a critical reading approach as this reading is a means of awakening and developing the critical faculties of the student.

3. TESTING

Last, but not least, let us consider how to involve the student in a very challenging component of the ESP programme: testing.

In the beginning, we felt very reluctant to give our students too many tests as these are regarded as devices to compare students' performances rather than as evaluation tools. Since students came to us on a voluntary basis, we wondered whether we should classify them through grading. As a result, we tried to disguise our tests by giving them other names, such as 'evaluation exercises', for example. Afterwards we felt that, although they did not necessarily enjoy it, students wanted to be evaluated because they needed to know how they were performing in order to ascertain which external examinations to take. As a matter of fact, this realization made us very happy for we also needed to know whether and how well students were learning how to read. At present, we even dare suggest that tests should be given at the end of every activity and that they might be welcome.

It was also suggested that we could set up a model for a test by preparing it together with the students.

After the tests have been returned to the students, an open discussion of all the items should take place. It is our belief that tests can also be used to exercise the critical ability of the students.

CONCLUSION

In writing this paper it was our intention to share with others our preoccupation with the actual role of the student in an ESP programme. We do not claim that ours is an exhaustive study or that our suggestions are all valid. Nonetheless, it could be a door to further and more extensive studies in this relatively unexplored area of ESP.

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TEACHING ESL AT AN ENGLISH-MEDIUM INTERNATIONAL SCHOOL

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Dhahran Academy, the largest school in the Saudi Arabian International School system, is composed of a primary, an elementary and a junior high school. It has a total enrollment of two thousand students who are all dependents of expatriate workers employed by numerous companies and institutions in the area. The enrollment is primarily American, but includes a sizable number of students from European, Arab and Asian countries, many of whom arrive at the school speaking little or no English. Since the school has an American curriculum, and English is the medium of instruction, a solid ESL program is a necessity.

The ESL students who are enrolled in Dhahran Academy Junior High come from a variety of backgrounds. Currently, there are fifty students from sixteen countries representing a number of language groups -- German, Dutch, Swedish, Danish, Norwegian, Greek, French, Arabic, Turkish, Pakistani, Tagalog, Korean, and Chinese.

Some of the ESL students have had several years of English in their own countries and some have learned English through the grammar-translation method but are not familiar with English sounds and cannot respond to oral questions; many have had no English at all. In addition, the Arabs and Orientals may or may not be familiar with the Roman alphabet. Nevertheless, all of the students, who are generally highly motivated, are literate in their mother tongue and some in two or more languages. In the main, they come from well-educated families in which the parents value education for their children.

The goal of the Junior High ESL program is to assist students to understand, speak, read, and write English as quickly as possible in order to prepare them for exit from ESL and entry into a regular junior high curriculum. The actual amount of time required to accomplish this varies with the individual, depending on such factors as language, aptitude, previous contacts with English, etc.

The school counselor administers a language and math placement test to every incoming student. Depending on the results of the language portion of the test, and other factors such as a brief interview with the parents and talking to the student, the students may be placed into mainstream classes or referred to the teacher for further testing and placement.

Although the ESL testing is not standardized, it serves the school's purposes of placement very well and few students have been initially mis-placed. Students who are found to be mis-placed are usually rescheduled into alternative classes within the first week. Tests administered include (1) the Peabody Picture Vocabulary Test which assesses receptive vocabulary skills, (2) the Structure Test of English Language which indicates grammar

proficiency, and (3) the John Test which measures oral comprehension, the ability to produce connected discourse in the form of a past tense narrative, and the ability to ask questions. Students are also asked to write the alphabet and to answer in writing some elementary questions in order to ascertain their familiarity with written English -- the Roman writing system, left-to-right orientation, and the mechanics of written English. Short reading comprehension passages are sometimes administered when more information on overall ability is necessary.

Students are scheduled into one, two or three periods of ESL per day according to their proficiency level which is determined from the composite score of the above tests. All students are also scheduled into other classes, including math and physical education, which are taken by all Academy students. Scheduling is fairly flexible. All seventh graders take Explorations, a course which includes a quarter each of art, music, typing, and introduction to computers. Many ESL students are scheduled into an art or industrial arts class where there are extensive hands-on experiences and fewer reading and lecture demands for them to cope with. Others may elect to take band, chorus, typing, or photography, depending on personal preferences, requests by parents, or scheduling possibilities. Most intermediate or advanced students are scheduled into one or more content area classes such as literature, science, social studies or a foreign language. Later in the year, as the students gain proficiency in English, they exit from one or more periods of ESL, and are enrolled in other content area courses. Selection of these courses is determined by suggestions from the ESL teacher and input from content area teachers, as well as student preferences.

ESL students on the beginning level are scheduled into an ESL class for the first period of the day. This establishes a homeroom atmosphere in which students can socialize before school begins, receive extra help with homework, ask questions, etc. School announcements are read and clarified and often become the basis for discussion of vocabulary, school functions, and American customs which are frequently confusing to non-American students.

The ESL program stresses all four language skills. The basic text for the course is English for a Changing World, Books 1-6, published by Scott Foresman and Company. This text is supplemented by extensive use of audio-visual materials in the initial phases. As the students gain proficiency in speaking, reading, and writing, they are assigned activities which require them to use the resources of the library -- listening to cassettes, viewing filmstrips, choosing a book. Eventually, they begin giving oral and written book reports. As the students progress, materials written specifically for ESL students -- songs, textbooks, graded readers, etc. -- are supplemented with other materials such as commercially prepared reading kits (SRA Reading for Understanding, for example), advanced listening exercises, vocabulary exercises, guided and free writing exercises and vocabulary and materials from the science and social studies areas. They are also given an intensive and extensive foundation in study skills such as locating the main idea, recognizing details, distinguishing between fact and opinion, following directions, reading graphic materials, using reference materials, and writing library reports. By the time the students exit from ESL, they have a solid foundation in the four skill areas of English as well as the means to cope

with vocabulary, and the essential study skills necessary for success in content area courses.

Since the content area teachers have input into scheduling and feel free to discuss successes, frustrations and problems with the ESL teacher, they are supportive of the ESL program. In fact, the program's success lies in this support. The Dhahran Academy ESL students' situation is unique in the sense that they are not studying in a bilingual setting, nor are they totally immersed in an English-speaking environment. They are intensively surrounded by English for eight hours per day in the junior high setting but when they return home most use their mother tongue, both in the intimate family setting and in social encounters outside the school setting. The ESL teacher can provide only so much English within the ESL classroom; the efforts of content area teachers enable the students to make further progress in English.

The Academy teachers realize that much learning can be based on the adolescent's innate desire to socialize, and to feel a sense of belonging within the peer group. Students are encouraged to join school clubs, to attend Student Council meetings and to participate in school functions and sports. Many teachers establish a 'buddy system' in their classes, pairing an ESL student with a native English speaker who can help demonstrate and explain concepts. Some teachers will invite ESL students during office hours or lunch periods for brief tutorials to clarify problem areas. Because testing often creates anxiety for a second language learner, some teachers give oral rather than written tests, allow the ESL student extra time to complete the test, or permit the use of a dictionary. In the early stages, the length of homework assignments is often reduced, and sometimes simplified texts or audio-visual materials are used in lieu of regular texts.

The attempt to make the ESL student feel a sense of success and of belonging at Dhahran Academy is an on-going process. Not every attempt meets with success, and the social nature of the individuals often determines whether they fit in or not. However, comments from teachers, parents and students indicate that they are generally satisfied with the way ESL students have been integrated into the mainstream of student life at Dhahran Academy.

TECHNIQUES

ORAL PRACTICE THROUGH GRAMMAR

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The Preparatory Year English program at the University of Petroleum and Minerals has no scheduled time for oral practice. However, such practice is required, and opportunities for it are built into the Reading, Listening and Writing components. In the Grammar component, for example, there are ways in which oral practice can be an integral part of a class lesson. These oral activities allow the teacher to be creative in reorganizing the prescribed material interestingly, and offer a refreshing diversion from the workbook fixation. At the same time, it is an opportunity for students to receive adequate practice and preparation for the end-of-semester oral examination, which requires them to ask questions, as directed by the interviewer, on topics launched by pictures illustrating course material presented in the Listening and Reading components. Test points are awarded for the appropriateness and grammatical correctness of each question.

One week's grammar unit includes four pictures and accompanying stories, followed by grammar explanations and written exercises for practising the grammatical points of the lesson. Below is one tried and tested method of adapting material to oral practice activities. Before class, do the following:

1. Choose one picture and story.
2. Look at the questions given and incorporate the question form into your plans as you mark the story in your book.
3. As you read through the story, write in 'WH-' (who, what, when, etc.) words or 'IF' at appropriate places in each sentence.
4. Decide if you want to practise any special points, e.g., present simple question forms, WH- words in subject position, etc., and mark in more of that type.
5. Prepare a transparency for the overhead projector, using a felt-tip pen. Write out a part of the story (edited to suit your purposes and to practise your chosen point further, if you wish), leaving space between the lines to indicate a number and a question word at first, and the number only for later. For clarity, use of contrasting colours for text, numbers and cue words is suggested.

Below is a sample reading passage from a UPM grammar book, followed by a suggested format for designing a transparency.

How many *Where*
If... All the rooms in the new class-
 room block are being repainted. *From where*
 Workmen from the Maintenance *How long ago*
 Department arrived a few days ago *Where*
 and have already finished quite a *Who* *If...*
 few of the upstairs classrooms. The *How many*
 walls have been painted white and
What colour the woodwork blue. The two painters
Where you can see in the picture have
What just finished work for the day.
Who They've collected all their brushes
Where and tins of paint and are just
What time about to leave. They're very tired.
Until They began work this morning at
What time 7:00, had only a thirty-minute
 break for lunch and worked all
What afternoon until 6:00. It has been a
Kind of long, hard day -- possibly almost
How long as long and as hard as the average
 working day for the Orientation
 students who use these classrooms!



The transparency, prepared using the above information, can be typewritten or handwritten.

1. <i>How many</i>	2. <i>What</i>	3. <i>ask if...</i>	4. <i>Who</i>
All the classrooms are being repainted. Workmen			
5. <i>ask if...</i>	6. <i>How long ago</i>	7. <i>who</i>	
arrived a few days ago and have already			
8. <i>How many</i>	9. <i>What</i>		
finished quite a few rooms upstairs. The walls			
10. <i>ask if...</i>	11. <i>What colour</i>	12. <i>Who</i>	13. <i>How many</i>
have been painted white. You can see two			
14. <i>Who</i>	15. <i>Where</i>	16. <i>Who</i>	17. <i>ask if...</i>
painters in the picture. They have just finished			
18. <i>What</i>			
work.			

leave
out
cue
words

During class, the following steps are suggested:

1. Set up the overhead projector with transparency covered, light off.
2. Read the story in the workbook aloud, one sentence at a time. Students can follow in the book and repeat chorally if you wish.
3. After each sentence, prompt the students at random to ask the questions you have marked. The shorter the prompt (i.e., cue word only), the more time the students have for speaking. Randomly selected students can answer, if you wish.
4. After extracting all the questions, move on to the next sentence.

COMMENT: Working your way like this through the story gives you control of the pace. These are not reading comprehension passages, so silent reading seems out of place (in silent reading, you never know where the students are, anyway). Leaving the questions in the book for the students to ask/answer at the end of the whole story reduces the spontaneity and 'snap' of rapid-fire question-and-answer practise.

5. After the last sentence has been dealt with, show the first line or so of your transparency story on the screen. Books should now be closed, and attention fixed on the screen.
6. Ask a student to form a question relating to the sentence under the place where you have put #1 (and initially a cue word). Ask another to do #2.
7. Have the students work in pairs to complete each question. After five or ten minutes, you will call on individual students to say the questions aloud.
8. Unveil the whole story and move around the class, helping students where necessary.

COMMENT: In my experience, this phase really gets the students thinking and speaking. They can make mistakes without being noticed, but each is motivated to achieve the correct form by the thought that you might call on him to produce it for the rest to hear.

9. When the faster students have finished, quieten the hubbub. By pointing to a number on the screen with one hand, and a student with the other, listen for the correct question forms, pointing to other students for corrections and back again. Repeat chorally if that is your forte.

COMMENT: The whole operation takes twenty to twenty-five minutes.

Done on a daily basis, it does improve the students' question asking

abilities. They are soon able to get the right WH- words without prompts. The questions in the book can be used for written homework, as a follow-up.

You will find you often give the explanation of the grammar point as you progress, but if not, then this is a good point to reinforce the oral practise with a little explanation of the structure. This leads into the written exercises that often give another slant to the points that the students have practised orally and you have explained briefly.

Four days of this for each unit makes for varied, lively classes and gets the point across easily to the average or better students, and often to the others, too.

REVIEWS

TEACHING READING SKILLS IN A FOREIGN LANGUAGE

PRACTICAL LANGUAGE TEACHING, VOLUME IX

Author: Christine Nuttall; Heinemann, 1982

Reviewer: Bob Ellison
University of Petroleum and Minerals
Dhahran, Saudi Arabia

As the general title in this series indicates, the emphasis of each volume is on practical suggestions for helping teachers on a day-to-day basis. In the case of this particular book, the reader should be pleased with the detailed information and guidance provided (particularly in the second part) on such topics as: questioning, extensive reading, and utilizing non-text information, plus examples in the appendices of many texts currently available.

The first part of the book provides a good introduction to reading theory (e.g. 'What is Reading?' and 'Reading for What Purpose?') and there are useful discussions in areas such as prediction, text and discourse, coherence and cohesion, readability and reading speeds. Whilst of necessity short, these sections are well-written and informative.

The author is not afraid to express her views strongly on a number of issues although on occasions such comments could benefit from a little more supportive evidence than is given, a point I shall return to later. As an example, the chapter entitled 'Reading for What Purpose?' reminds us of a very important and often forgotten point: the authentic purpose of reading should be to extract the message and not to improve language, any improvement being a natural by-product of reading. The implications of this for text selection are very important, viz., that we should make a clear distinction between teaching reading skills and vocabulary acquisition.

Another point to be made is that different texts offer opportunities for different kinds of exploitation. Following from this, the author suggests a number of alternatives -- from standard multiple-choice questions to making a model or operating a machine -- as valuable techniques for developing reading skills.

Returning to the point made earlier about a lack in some cases of supporting evidence for particular statements, I would suggest that this rather weakens the book. Of course, in attempting to cover such a large number of topics, it is almost inevitable that there will be a few blemishes. Nevertheless, I do feel that a little more discussion and perhaps a reference or two to research evidence would strengthen certain, possibly valid, points.

For example, the author writes on translation: "Because of the difficulty of doing it satisfactorily, however, we do not commend translation for general use." In addition, on cloze procedure, there is the statement: "The use of cloze technique for testing is now well-established." Is it? Finally, on vocabulary, it is suggested that "for extensive reading a rather small proportion of new words -- one percent perhaps...[is recommended]." Johns, writing in this issue of TEAM on 'The Text and its Message', seems to have different views when he refers to text macrostructures: "There seems to be a 'threshold effect' by which, when more than 50 per 1,000 words are unknown, perception of overall structure may be blocked." He seems to be suggesting a maximum of 5%.

One other point I wish to make is that I am a little disappointed not to find some detailed discussion of evaluation since, rightly or wrongly, examinations still play a large part in the EFL/ESL system. I would have liked the author to have tackled some of the issues in testing (e.g., Can reading be tested? If so, should it be done directly or by informal measures? What testing procedures would the author propose and what evidence is there to suggest that the results would provide valid and reliable measures?).

The few criticisms I have made of this book should not, however, detract from its value. It is full of very good, detailed suggestions on how to approach the teaching of particular skills and there are many observations on other matters which many of us might enjoy reading.

TEXT TO NOTE

Authors: Alex Adkins and Ian McKean
Edward Arnold Publishers, Ltd., 1983

Reviewer: R.K. Singh
Indian School of Mines
Dhanbad, India

Text to Note is an effective, advanced level course which seeks to develop and refine study skills such as understanding and interpreting written texts, charts, graphs, diagrams and flowcharts; to understand lectures; to make notes based on the reading and the lectures; and to use these notes to perform a range of tasks. Organised in twenty units with interesting reading passages on a variety of topics (Earthquakes, Energy Sources, Silicon Chips, The Camera, Heat Control & The Skin, The World's Food, etc.) and a fourteen-page tapescript which is a transcription of the talks recorded 'under authentic conditions', the book is intended "to encourage the learner to become increasingly independent in using the techniques of study" which are necessary to pursue university level education.

The authors do not view reading in isolation, and they rightly link different skills by means of the selected reading activities, devising flexible and varied exercises. Given the importance of note-taking, both from spoken and written text at tertiary level, Adkins and McKean provide a task-based approach with pair/group activities in the main. The students are exposed to authentic texts that enable them to learn language forms which are immediately useable in a valid, communicative situation. Rightly, they give emphasis to paragraphs rather than to sentences as a unit in written discourse.

The first two units, 'Using Your Dictionary' and 'Note-Making', are obviously introductory, encouraging learners to use effectively the monolingual dictionaries, such as Hornby's Advanced Learner's Dictionary of Current English, and introducing them to the basic skills of making notes, such as the use of symbols and abbreviations, signpost words, ordering essential points with headings and sub-headings, etc. -- all with an eye on speed, accuracy and clarity.

Units three through twenty offer practice in reading activities such as pre-reading (to stimulate the student's interest and to establish existing knowledge), content-skimming (to develop an overall grasp of the passage, its structure and the key points), and comprehension scanning (to develop understanding above the sentence level). The listening activities in these units include decoding (i.e., identifying what is being said), controlled note-making (i.e., completing the notes with the help of the outlines provided on the general pattern set out in the unit on Note-Making), guided note-making (only headings are provided and the students are to decide what and how much to write), and free note-making (found in the last four units -- no framework given for the notes on lectures).

The students have ample opportunity to practise reading, writing and listening skills through different tasks, varied in form and purpose, in each unit. They are exposed to a variety of texts followed by practise in the major discourse categories: description, processes, instructions, narrative, and classification. There are also tasks related to identifying, defining, comparing/contrasting, showing cause and effect, and writing a piece of continuous prose, regardless of the function.

Though this broad range of language practice helps students develop the flexibility to deal with whatever they encounter in their subject study or examination, it is possible that an inclusion of the techniques of surveying the text, books as well as chapters -- to get a general idea of what it is all about -- would enrich the contents of Adkins and McKean's book.

The book is replete with charts, graphs, diagrams, figures, tables, grids, drawings, maps, pictures and flowcharts for practise in identifying, describing and analysing (by labelling diagrams, drawings, flowcharts), classifying and comparing (by filling in the appropriate boxes in a grid or a table and by examining diagrams), sequencing (by completing flowcharts), following instructions and transferring information (by completing maps, graphs), etc.

Text to Note, which constructs EAP skills in a communicative framework, should be useful for a wide range of learners, both non-native and native, engaged in courses in higher education through the medium of English and also for students preparing to take the JMB Test in English (Overseas). The book is a self-sufficient and self-correcting course on English-medium study skills that develops and integrates reasoning and communication through task-based activities. It should make the learners independent in tackling their subject lectures, texts and reference sources. It can form a significant part of an ESP course in a second language situation.

TESTING COMMUNICATIVE PERFORMANCE, AN INTERIM STUDY

Author: Brendan J. Carroll, 1980

Reviewer: Graham Elliott
University of Petroleum and Minerals
Dhahran, Saudi Arabia

If language should be taught as it is in use (as Widdowson thinks), and if explanations and information about grammar do not serve to help learners use a new language (as Chomsky says), then this is a useful book. It thoughtfully discusses issues of language testing from the point of view of language as communication.

Carroll asserts (p.11) that "... authenticity must always be an important aspect of any discussion on language testing ..." What he calls 'language tests of today', illustrate a lack of authenticity in the tasks set for testees. He cites, for the reader's consideration, the following:

1. He eats meat, (a) doesn't he? (b) won't I? (c) can't you?
2. Describe in 75-100 words how a bicycle works.
3. "... a cloze test ... is [claimed to be] a test of basic linguistic processing mechanisms of the grammar of predication..." (p.12)

Carroll considers that the communication function of language is being trivialized by such measurements: he describes a process of design and development from which more authentic tests may be more logically constructed.

The third and largest of the book's five chapters is devoted, as may be expected, to the development of communicative tests. Here the author comments on or outlines tests for a sample of skills, either focused on reading, listening, writing, or speaking, or in mixed mode, illustrated by tests of oral interaction, note-taking, and research reading and writing. Specifications for test content are detailed in Appendix I and taken from a communicative needs analysis after the Munby model (Munby, 1978), a basis which Carroll considers to be sound.

Most of the rest of the book, chapters two and four, accounts for the design and the operation of communicative tests. In chapter four there is discussion and elaboration of the theme of tests for placement, prognosis/aptitude, progress, diagnosis, and also for accreditation examinations. Carroll states that any test system, however useful, "... cannot be excused rigorous scrutiny to see if it is possible to improve [it] ..." (p. 88) and includes a model program for test development and revision of tests.

In chapter five the author illustrates from the communicative testing literature "... adventurous thinking ... in the field of applied linguistics, communication, and socio-linguistics, ..." (p. 90) which he believes is not

matched in the field of testing. From the selected quotes taken from the work of van Ek, Alexander, Wilkins, Morrow, Spolsky, Munby, Fishman, and others, a powerful argument is marshalled for tests that measure communicative performance. Further support for the author's thinking is supplied from experimental data from his study of 160 Spanish-speaking students who took a nine-month academic "... basic course of combined science and English." (p. 96). The conclusions drawn from the literature and the author's experience are:

1. "... a case for profound unease about the bases of much current language testing."
2. "... a rationale for the development of principles and procedures [to] align our measurement systems more closely with the role they are required to play." (p. 104)

Those who accept Carroll's discussion and who are seeking tests with communicatively-oriented design will find the appendices of considerable value. Appendix I is a communicative needs profile; Appendix II provides lengthy excerpts from a Royal Society of Arts communicative test specification; Appendix III details 'bands' of sample rating scales for general assessment of a learner's language behavior in interview, from academic writing, and in oral interaction. While there is more depth available elsewhere, for example in listening proficiency descriptions in the work of Ingram and of Brindley in Australia, these appendix descriptions seem to be a sufficient base from which to begin.

The book has a useful bibliography, a Who's Who of communicative teaching thesis, analysis, and synthesis, and a small but helpful index. Its style is accessible and lucid, allowing easy access to the discussion.

Richards (1983) mentions that language proficiency scales ('bands' in Appendix III) may logically lead to nomination of behavioral objectives as goals for classroom work; a learner's actual language behavior in the nominated areas can then be assessed after the course to quantify the degree that course objectives have been met. Teachers and course-planners who attempt to follow such a procedure will find Testing Communicative Performance a pragmatic starting point.

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- Munby, J.L. 1978. Communicative Syllabus Design. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
- Richards, J.C. 1983. Listening Comprehension: Approach, Design, Procedure. TESOL Quarterly 17:2.

ELC NEWS ITEMS

Second semester was a busy one for faculty and students alike..... CHARLES GARDINER organized a popular intramural scholastic competition appropriately named 'Top of the Class', which went a long way toward better preparing our students for their final exams.....The ELC's annual Speaking Contest played to a capacity audience in April. The affair was attended by University V.I.P.'s including Vice-Rector for Academic Affairs YOUSSEF AL-RASHID. Judged on content, organization, and presentation, AYOUB AL-GHAMDI of Rahimah captured first place and received a round-trip ticket to Amsterdam compliments of KLM Airlines. The winning topic was on pollution. Other winning topics included: computers; Mohammed, Benefactor of Mankind; airports in Saudi Arabia; the Qara people of Oman; Jupiter; the virtue of showing mercy; the disadvantages of smoking; and the advantages of having a speaking contest. Judges for the event were LOUIS MAZE and MIKE COLLINS from the ELC, and TONY THOMAS of the Industrial Arts Department.

UPM was the scene of the second annual Computer Exhibition in April. Representatives from most of the world's major hi-tech companies were on hand to display and demonstrate all their latest gadgetry to many interested and fascinated onlookers. The exhibition was attended by faculty and students as well as the general public.

Preparatory Programs Director MOHAMMED A. MULLA hosted an end-of-year gala dinner for ELC faculty. Traditional Arab food was served under the stars at the UPM Guest House.

The English Language Center was visited in April by Dr. RABIE O. BUDAIR, Director of the Center for European Languages and Translation at King Saud University in Riyadh. Dr. Budair toured the campus, and met with University officials and TEAM staff members.

GRAHAM ELLIOTT was appointed one of the skills leaders for the next academic year. Graham, a New Zealander-cum-Briton who has spent quite a bit of time in the States, will coordinate our grammar program.

An Ad Hoc Committee for the Evening Language Program (ELP) was formed to explore new directions that the program might take. The ELP has in the past offered multi-level English language courses to the general public as a community service. The committee completed its work in early May and passed on recommendations and proposals for possible implementation in the autumn.

ANNOUNCEMENTS

Fifth European Symposium on LSP August 26 to 30, 1984. For information on this conference on Languages for Specific Purposes, write to: Prof. L.K. Engels; Instituut voor Levende Talen; Katholieke Universiteit Leuven; Vesaliusstraat 21, B-3000; Leuven, Belgium.

Report on 'ESP in the Arab World' Conference Middle East readers interested in obtaining a copy of the proceedings of this conference held August 1983 at the University of Aston, Birmingham and organised by John Swales, may do so by writing to: Dr. Mohammed A. Mulla, Preparatory Year Programs; University of Petroleum and Minerals; Dhahran, Saudi Arabia. A cheque for six pounds fifty (British Sterling) to the order of John Swales is needed to defray costs.

Cultural Key Experiences Call for cross-cultural experiences. Dr. Udo O.H. Jung (University of Marburg; Markt 23, D-3550; Federal Republic of Germany) is collecting descriptions and interpretations of insightful cross-cultural anecdotes. If interested in contributing, please include: date and location of the event; number of persons involved; those persons' sex, age and status relative to each other; languages/dialects involved. Indicate the degree of mastery you have of the languages involved, how this could have influenced the events, and what other languages you speak. Type in English, German or French. Signed consent for story to be published is needed.

Request for Manuscripts The American Council of Teachers of Foreign Languages sponsors a Materials Center which welcomes original manuscripts and/or teacher oriented materials for publication and distribution to language educators. Topics considered: Professional Development, Student Materials; Promoting Foreign Language Study; Bilingual Education; Computer Assisted Instruction; Culture; ESOL; Exchange Programs; Individualized Instruction. Submit the original manuscript and two copies to: Dorothy Gabel Liebowitz, Editor; ACTFL Materials Center; 1930 Laurel Avenue; Hanover Park, IL 60103; U.S.A.

18th TESOL Convention in Houston Many papers delivered at this conference have been taped and are available on audiocassette. For a listing, write to: Audio Transcripts Ltd.; 610 Madison Street; Alexandria, Virginia 22314; U.S.A.

Cambridge Applied Linguistics Series Cambridge University Press has recently established a new series under the editorship of Michael H. Long and Jack C. Richards. This series will focus on second language education. Titles may include single author texts, edited collections of papers or coherent selections of conference papers on a single topic, and survey volumes suitable for introductory course work in a given area of applied linguistics. Contact the editors with a brief proposal which should include a suggested table of contents and a sample chapter or related journal publication by you. Write: Drs. Michael Long and Jack C. Richards; Dept. of ESOL; Moore Hall; University of Hawaii at Manoa; 1890 East-West Road; Honolulu, Hawaii 96822; USA.

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TEAM

ENGLISH LANGUAGE CENTER

الفريق



UNIVERSITY OF PETROLEUM AND MINERALS
DHAHRAN • SAUDI ARABIA

TEAM

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* IN MEMORIAM

FROM THE EDITOR

Our leading feature article in this issue was written by UPM's own Darion Hutchinson. Darion, who also recently joined the TEAM staff, has made a study of errors likely to be made by students going from Arabic to English. Although contrastive analysis is no longer seen as having the sweeping importance it once did and syllabuses are no longer founded upon the results of it, this study will be highly useful to those of us teaching writing and grammar to Arabic-speaking classes.

The second feature comes to us from neighboring Oman via the University of Aston in Birmingham, where a version of it was presented last year at the Institute for ESP in the Arab world. The author, Dr. Diana E. Adams Smith, examines the challenges of designing a language center for a new university. Many of us know of the work of Dr. Adams Smith, who was until recently affiliated with the University of Kuwait and who has published widely.

Anyone welcoming a departure from the usual will be interested in Zaka Khan's article promoting the use of dramatics in the classroom. Professor Khan, who teaches ESL at Rockland Community College in New York State, first presented this paper at the 1984 TESOL Convention in Houston, Texas.

From the ELI curriculum department of the International Airports Project in Jeddah we have a classroom technique designed for vocational students, but which may easily be used in general ESL classes as well. Dr. James Fallon has extensive experience teaching in the Middle East, and has collaborated with Muhammad Raji Zughoul of Yarmouk University and with Robert F. Maple on a paper we plan to publish in a forthcoming issue of TEAM.

In the editorial column of the Summer issue, it was mentioned that we planned to bring to you an article from the Higher Institute of Electronics in Libya; however, we learned after going into production on this issue that the article had recently been published elsewhere. The author neglected to inform us that this was the case and we reluctantly were forced to pull the article. Contributors are kindly requested to submit either only original material to us or material which has explicitly been given permission for reprinting.

In future issues, we have slated an article from the University of Puerto Rico on measuring student attitudes for curriculum planning, one from the Pontificia Universidade Catolica de Sao Paulo in Brazil on individualized instruction for ESP students, one from Yarmouk University on alternative approaches to the teaching of English literature in developing World universities, and more, more, more...

SOME PREDICTABLE ERRORS OF ARAB STUDENTS IN WRITTEN ENGLISH

Darion D. Hutchinson
University of Petroleum and Minerals
Dhahran, Saudi Arabia

Owing to contrasts between Arabic and English on phonological, morphological, syntactical, and stylistical levels, Arab ESL students are likely to make predictable errors in writing English. A contrastive analysis between English and Arabic can alert the ESL teacher of composition to those errors which an Arab student is likely to produce and which the teachers can, consequently, forestall.

In English composition courses, students are judged according to their ability to handle the mechanics and style of English. For the Arab ESL student, errors in mechanics arise from contrasts between English and Arabic in the areas of phonology, morphology, syntax and punctuation; problems in style arise from contrasts between morphology, punctuation and prose style.

It is not possible to effect a contrastive analysis without stating which variety of Arabic will be dealt with here. Contemporary Arabic, as spoken by 180 million people in areas ranging from Morocco to Oman and from Syria to Somalia, includes numerous distinct dialects. These many dialects differ from each other mainly in vowel sounds, vowel-consonant patterns, and vocabulary. Modern Standard Arabic, however, is the common language as spoken by educated speakers of Arabic and is the lingua franca of all Arabic speakers. Though the various Arabic dialects may differ from Modern Standard Arabic in vowel sounds, vowel-consonant patterns and vocabulary, Modern Standard Arabic embodies the structural grammar common to all Arabic dialects. Therefore, this paper will deal with the mechanics, excluding phonology, of Modern Standard Arabic contrasted with English. It is intended as a general overview addressed to ESL teachers with little or no knowledge of Arabic.

ERRORS ANALYSIS KEY

AA	confusion between adverb and adjective form
And	excessive use of <u>and</u> , excessive coordination, or sentence begun with <u>and</u> , <u>but</u> , <u>or</u> , <u>for</u> , <u>nor</u>
Art	omission or incorrect use of <u>a</u> , <u>an</u> , <u>the</u>
Case	faulty case of pronoun
Comp	faulty comparison form of adjective or adverb

Det	omission or incorrect use of determiners other than <u>a</u> , <u>an</u> , <u>the</u>
Poss	incorrect possessive or genitive form of noun
Prep	omission of preposition or incorrect preposition, or omission of adverb or incorrect adverb in two-word verb forms
Ref	faulty reference of pronoun or possessive adjective
Sp	spelling error
SS	sentence structure: double object, double subject, etc
S/Pl	confusion between singular and plural forms of nouns
SV	lack of agreement between subject and verb
Vb	incorrect formation of verb form or incorrect verbal
WO	incorrect word order

PUNCTUATION

Cap	word should be capitalized
CS	comma splice: comma instead of period has been inserted between sentences
Frag	incomplete sentence punctuated as sentence
LC	lower case: word should not be capitalized indent, or new paragraph needed
no	no new paragraph; paragraph too short
P	punctuation error other than CS, Frag, Run-on
Run-on	no punctuation between sentences

MORPHOLOGY AND SYNTAX

I. Nouns

- A. S/Pl whereas English distinguishes two forms for number, Arabic distinguishes three -- singular, dual, and plural.

Arabic uses of the singular are roughly synonymous with English, and Arabic uses of the dual and plural are roughly synonymous with English uses of the plural.

Problems:

1. Nouns that do not follow the regular plural are often incorrectly pluralized: fish becomes fisins.
2. Uncountable nouns are often pluralized.

- B. Poss In Arabic, possession is indicated by placing the definite noun (possessor) after the indefinite noun (that which is possessed), a word order similar to the English periphrastic genitive:

/kita:b ʔalwalad/

book (of) the boy

BEST COPY AVAILABLE

Problem:

In English writing, Arab students often use the periphrastic genitive to denote possession by animate beings.

*the book of the boy

II. Pronouns

- A. (Case) Dative, genitive, and accusative pronouns are suffixed to the words they modify in Arabic writing. These suffix pronouns generally have the same form in the dative, genitive, or accusative case.

The nominative case in Arabic is used similarly to the nominative case in English.

Problems:

1. The Arab student often uses the objective case to denote possession:

This is his. becomes *This is him.

His book becomes *him book.

*She continued to hope for him return.

- B. (Ref) Arabic has grammatical gender whereas English has mainly natural gender.

Problem:

- i. The Arab student may refer to inanimate objects as he or she.

- C. (SS) The pronoun subject is included in Arabic verb forms.

In Arabic there is a tendency to use a nominative case pronoun immediately after the subject to which it refers,

/ʔalwalad nuwa daraba ʔalbint/

*The boy he hit the girl.

and a tendency to use an accusative pronoun verb suffix as well as a direct object noun:

/ʔalwalad ʔarabaha ʔalbint/

*The boy hit her the girl.

A more significant problem occurs in relative clauses, where the direct object or object of the preposition is required in Arabic but omitted in English:

/ʔalwalad ʔala:ʃi raʔaitahu ʔaxi/

*The boy who you saw him is my brother.

/ʔalmuškila ʔala:ti ʔaša:rtu ʔilayha Saʔbatun/

*The problem which I referred to it is difficult.

*The hovercraft is a unique form of transport which it can travel over land or water.

III. Adjectives

- A. (Comp) Arabic forms the comparative and superlative of adjectives in an extremely regular manner which does not approximate the -er, -est and more, most patterns of English.

Problems:

1. Arab students may form double comparisons:

*This is more better.

2. Arab students may not use -er, est, and more, most in the proper patterns:

*This street is more wide.

*This is the colorfulest book.

3. Arab students may be confused by the irregularly compared adjectives such as good and far. These must be memorized.

- B. (Ref) The Arabic possessive adjective is generally identical to the objective case pronoun.

Arabic possessive adjectives have grammatical gender.

Problems:

1. /ʔuxtuhu Darabathu/
*Him sister hit him.
2. *Her (Kuwait's) weather is hot.

IV. Verbs

Arabic and English both have two forms to distinguish tense: the present and the preterite (past). Both languages can express futurity in a number of different manners. Both languages, particularly Arabic, use auxiliaries in forming perfect forms.

- A. (SV) Arabic verbs are generally inflected to agree with their subjects in person, number, and gender. There are exceptions, but these do not interfere with English.

Problem:

1. Arab students have difficulty remembering to place the -(e)s ending on 3rd person singular present tense verbs and auxiliaries. The problem arises because the English -(e)s ending is redundant and a linguistic anomaly. Speakers of languages other than Arabic also have this problem.

*Do he study at home? *He study at home. *He have gone.

- B. (Vb) In Arabic the simple present and the present progressive are expressed in the same way. Thus /yadrusu/ may be used as he studies or as he is studying. The problem is not that in Arabic the present simple and present progressive are expressed by the same verb form, but rather that the aspectual distinction represented by the present progressive is unimportant (i.e. when one translates from Arabic to English, the present progressive is sometimes used in English depending on the context -- the Arabic would not acknowledge the present progressive).

Problems:

1. Arab students often confuse the simple present with the present progressive.
2. Arab students often use the auxiliary to be with a simple present verb form to denote the simple present (overcompensation):

*I am work at ARAMCO.

3. Similarly, Arab students often use a past tense form of the auxiliary to be with a simple present verb to denote the simple past: *He was go to the store.

- C. (SS) Arabic does not use the present tense of the verb to be in equational sentences:

/huwa rajul/	/ʔaljabal kabi:r/
he man	the mountain big

Problem:

1. Arab students often omit the verb to be in writing English:

*No, I never sad. *My brother in school.

- D. (Vb) The English strong (irregular) verbs are a source of confusion to the Arab student, as well as to most other ESL students. By analogy, students often form the past and participial forms of strong verbs with regular endings, thus: *He dranked. *He was shooted.

V. Adverbs

- A. (Comp) Problems similar to comparison of adjectives (See III A. above).

- B. (AA) Confusion between adverb and adjective forms is common:

*I think you talk too quiet.

- C. (WU) Placement of adverbs of frequency often causes problems in word order:

*He always is late.

*They eat sometimes in a restaurant.

- D. (Prep) Arabic has many verb-preposition/particle constructions. These rarely translate literally into English. Similarly, English verb-adverb/preposition constructions are a problem for Arab students:

*When my husband leaves the university, he will search on a job.

*I can't deal on this subject.

*Turn around the cards. (=over)

VI. Prepositions

- (Prep) Prepositions are an endless source of confusion for Arab students. Errors are predictable in all cases (See V. D. above). There is a lack of correspondence in translation into English from Arabic.

VII. Determiners

- A. (Art) Definiteness is very important to meaning in Arabic. The morpheme /ʔal/ represents the definite article and is prefixed to the word which it modifies. The use of the Arabic definite article is similar to the use of the in English. Indefiniteness is expressed in Arabic with a suffix /-n/. It is rarely spoken and written only in vowel texts.

Problems:

1. The Arabic definite article is used with abstract nouns:

*The precision is important in engineering.

2. Because the indefinite inflection is often not used in Modern Standard Arabic, there are many problems with the English indefinite article a(n). It is often omitted:

*Yes, he is doctor.

3. A is frequently prefixed to the word it modifies, because /ʔal/ is prefixed to the word it modifies:

*There are alot of tourists on the Alaqaba Coast.

*I live in ahouse.

Sometimes a is not prefixed to the word it modifies but is placed so close to its noun that it seems as though the Arab student knows he should not attach it but is deeply tempted at any rate.

- B. (Det) The demonstrative adjectives are sometimes used in Arabic in lieu of articles. This habit is carried over into English with the accompanying problem in reference:

*It was a golden beam reflected from the surface of that mirror.

VIII. Conjunctions

- A. (And) In Arabic the word /wa/ (English and) is often used instead of commas or periods. It is often used at the beginning of a sentence, at the beginning of a paragraph, or in any place where the writer may want to pause for any reason.

Problems:

1. Arab students may use and's instead of commas in a series -- often a very long series.
2. Run-on sentences with and's instead of punctuation between sentences.
3. Sentences beginning with a coordinating conjunction.

B. Trans There is often no correspondence between Arabic and English connecting words. Therefore, an Arab student may often choose the wrong connecting word between clauses and sentences:

*The runner wore bright colors, but everyone watched him.

*The election was close. So, our candidate won.

IX. Word Order (Arrangement)

WU Arrangement and sentence structure have already been touched upon on this paper in several specific cases (See II. C., IV. C., V. C.). The above references are syntactical problems which have a high rate of probability. Besides the above references, word order does not pose a serious problem to Arab students of English. However, Arabic word order differs from English word order in many respects. Since word order, along with inflectional endings and definiteness, carries a heavy semantic load in Arabic, a brief comparison of Arabic and English sentence patterns is appropriate. Attention will be given to those sentence patterns which contrast. Problems in word order and sentence structure which have been handled above will not be dealt with.

In Arabic the verb often precedes its subject. For example:

This was a house.

The house was large.

/ka:na ha:ða da:ran/

/ka:na 'alda:ru kabi:ran/

was this house a

was the house large

It should be noted that the preterite verb often precedes its subject as in the above sentence and that the preterite of to be generally precedes its subject. All other sentence patterns in Arabic show a greater diversity in word order.

A. The English Sentence Pattern $N^1 + V(\text{to be} \text{ -- present}) + N^1$

Frag The Arabic sentence pattern which coincides with the English sentence pattern $N^1 + V(\text{to be}) + N^1$ in the present tense is called "the equational sentence". Its configuration is $N^1 + N^1$. Interference from the equational sentence does not come into English as a problem in word order but as the omission of

the verb to be (see IV. C.). The same relationship exists between the English sentence $N^1 + V(\text{to be}) + \text{Adj.}$ in the present tense. Examples are:

My brother is a secretary.

/ʔaxi sikriti:run/

brother my secretary a

*My brother a secretary.

My brother is strong.

/ʔaxi šadi:du/

brother my strong

*My brother strong.

B. The English Sentence Pattern $N^1 + V$

In all tenses and verb forms, the English sentence pattern $N^1 + V$ has counterparts in the Arabic sentence patterns $N^1 + V$. There is no problem with word order.

C. The English Sentence Pattern $N^1 + V + N^2(\text{Direct Object})$

Although the verb in Arabic can either precede or follow its subject, the subject always precedes the direct object. Therefore, the Arab student is familiar with this English sentence pattern.

D. The English Sentence Pattern $N^1 + V + N^3(\text{Indirect Object}) + N^2(\text{Direct Object})$ and $N^1 + V + N^2(\text{Direct Object}) + \text{to } N^3(\text{Indirect Object})$

There are Arabic sentence patterns which match both of the English indirect object sentence patterns:

The teacher taught the student the lesson.

/ʔalmudarrisu darrasa ʔalTa:liba ʔaldira:sata/

the teacher taught the student the lesson

The teacher taught the lesson to the student.

/ʔalmudarrisu darrasa ʔaldira:sata li ʔalTa:libi/

the teacher taught the lesson to the student

Prep

Although familiar with both indirect object patterns in their own language, Arab students have a tendency to write *The teacher taught to the student the lesson.

It is often best not even to touch on the indirect object sentence patterns, as Arab students instinctively know this construction owing to the similarity in their own language. Explanation can be redundant and confusing to the student.

E. The English Sentence Pattern $N^1 + V + N^2$ (Direct Object) + $N^2 +$ (Objective Complement)

The same pattern exists and is commonly used in Arabic.

F. The English Sentence Pattern $N^1 + V + (N^2, N^3)$ Adverbial

Adverbials generally appear at the end of the Arabic sentence, although they can appear in various other positions. Adverbs of frequency can precede the verb (see V. C.). Adverbs of manner can also precede the verb, and in English writing Arab students often misplace adverbs of manner: *I like very much my country.

G. Negative Sentence Patterns in English

In Arabic the negative particle generally precedes the sentence pattern. However, there do exist sentence patterns which resemble English negative sentence patterns:

The book is not good.

The book is not good.

/laysa 'alkita:bu Hasanani/

/'alkita:bu laysa Hasanani/

is not the book good

the book is not good

Vb Although English negative sentence patterns generally do not trouble Arab students, these students may inflect the verb after the auxiliary used with the negative:

*He couldn't find a job because he didn't has any friends.

Vb Due to the large variety of English auxiliaries used to form the negative, Arab students can be confused as to which to use:

*He is not park his car yet.

H. English Interrogative Sentence Patterns

Vb Arabic interrogative particles generally precede the sentence pattern, as in English. The Arabic interrogative particles /na/ and /'a/ perform the function that the interrogative auxiliaries perform in English. The problem lies in the myriad of auxiliaries used in English to form the questions.

PUNCTUATION

Punctuation is a major problem for Arab students in writing English. For students who are from countries which were colonies of France and who have received extensive training in French or English, punctuation is not a great problem; however, mistakes should be expected. For students who have had no exposure to French or English, though, punctuation is a likely problem.

Arabic punctuation is not standardized; it is left to the individual needs of the writer. Punctuation has only recently been introduced into Arabic, and the large number of symbols used have only vague meanings. Sometimes Arabic is heavily punctuated with symbols which indicate stop, pause, quotation, or digression. All of the symbols of English punctuation appear in Arabic, as well as a host of other symbols which often appear in the English writing of Arab students. The use of conventional English symbols often does not correspond to correct usage or meaning.

Likely errors of Arab students in writing English include:

- I. (P) The omission of English punctuation.
- II. (P) The use of Arabic symbols in lieu of English punctuation.
 - A. The comma may be replaced by --, :, ..., =, or the comma may be written above the line.
 - B. The period may be replaced by -- or a series of dots. The more dots there are, the more the writer intends for the reader to ponder the last statement.
 - C. Quotation marks may be replaced by --, ~~»~~, «».
 - D. The comma may be replaced by and.

Note: The large commas often seen floating above the line bear a strong orthographic resemblance to the Arabic word wa (/wa/ and). This symbol most commonly occurs between items in a series.

- III. (P) A. Words may be divided incorrectly at the end of a line:

<u>ugh</u>	*thro-
<u>bout</u> .	*a-

- B. A comma may be placed at the beginning of a line:

*Eratosthenes

,who was a Greek mathematician, lived in Egypt over 2000
years ago.

- IV. (P) Italics, underlining, and quotation marks are rarely used to designate titles, etc. Non-English symbols are often used instead.

- V. LC
Cap Arabic has no capital letters. Arab students often do not capitalize where necessary in English, or they may overcompensate and capitalize too much. Sometimes they are confused by the difference between upper- and lower-case letters. Often a large lower-case letter will represent a capital letter, or a small upper-case letter will represent a small letter.
- VI. CS Comma splices are common owing to the Arab student's unfamiliarity with English punctuation or because of interference from Arabic where /wa/ would suffice.
- VII. Run-on Run-on sentences are common due to the Arab student's unfamiliarity with English punctuation, interference from Arabic where /wa/ would suffice, and interference from the characteristically lengthy Arabic sentence.

PARAGRAPH PUNCTUATION

Indentation, like other symbols of punctuation, is not systematized in Arabic; therefore, the freedom of paragraph construction in Arabic is comparable to the diversity in Arabic punctuation. Some paragraphs consist of only one sentence. This sentence may be short or very long, just as it may be punctuated or not. Some paragraphs may include a number of sentences to present and develop an idea concisely while others may explain a lengthy and complicated construction process in only a few sentences. Arabic punctuation interferes with English paragraph construction for Arab students.

Problems:

1. no P Owing to interference from Arabic, an Arab student may punctuate every sentence as a paragraph.
2. P English paragraphs and compositions may receive no paragraph punctuation at all.
3. P
no P Paragraph punctuation may occur at random, or paragraph indentation may not signify the introduction of a new topic.
4. P Use of quotation marks and paragraph indentation may not coincide.

Arabic punctuation interferes in English paragraph construction to cause a lack of unity and coherence.

PLANNING A UNIVERSITY LANGUAGE CENTRE IN OMAN: PROBLEMS AND PROPOSALS

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INTRODUCTION

Sultan Qaboos University in Oman is to open in 1986, with English-medium teaching in the Colleges of Agriculture, Engineering, Medicine and Science, and Arabic-medium instruction in the College of Education and Islamic sciences. Factors to be taken into account in planning a language centre for the university include the difficulty of accurately establishing the likely entry level of learners in a context where state-wide education dates only from 1970 and is still evolving rapidly; the lack of hard information on the number of students to be admitted in the first years of the university's operation; the problem of obtaining a specific description of the level of English expected by the different colleges at the exit point from the Foundation English course; constraints imposed by decisions already made by the University Foundation Committee about the total number and distribution of hours available for English teaching; the need to maximise the effectiveness of a marginally adequate time allocation; the importance of giving sufficient status to the Language Centre and its staff to allow for language improvement programmes jointly planned by the Language Centre and the students' sponsoring departments to be carried out on a basis of equality; and the lack of EFL-trained Omanis. To accommodate these features the principle of maximum school-university articulation or vertical integration has been adopted, with the closest possible relationship between the ELT Unit of the Ministry of Education and the Language Centre staff, some of whom will spend a proportion of their time upon arrival on secondment to the schools; and a policy of horizontal integration between the Language Centre and the colleges to allow for the joint devising and co-operative teaching of support courses. Other proposals include the recruitment of well qualified and experienced instructors; small classes to facilitate active language use; classrooms equipped with audio-visual aids; a self-access resource centre; a selective intake of students; a programme of 'sensitization' for college staff unfamiliar with the language and study skills problems likely to be faced by their students; independent status for the Language Centre; a seat on the University Council for the director; status, salary and contractual provisions for Language Centre staff identical with those of academic staff with similar qualifications; and emphasis on research, and a plan for identifying suitable Omani nationals for post-graduate training abroad in allied linguistics or TEFL. All these proposals have been formally approved.

PROBLEMS AND PROPOSALS

In an ideal world, planning a university language centre no matter where would be context-free, requiring no more than the imposition of an all-purpose

model guaranteed applicable in all circumstances from Tennessee to Thailand.¹ In reality, local features have to be taken into account, whether they relate to general conditions and attitudes or to specific decisions already taken. Once a commitment has been made to establish a university and the walls are rising, the language centre planner has several immediate issues to consider: identifying the learners, ascertaining the expectations of university staff and administrators, and deciding how best to bridge the gap between actual and required performance.

1. Identification of Learners. Because of the speed of evolution of education in Oman since 1970, when a state-wide school system was set up for the first time, the situation is fluid and still developing. (See Table I.)

Except for a minority, almost all of whom were educated abroad, this is the first generation of literate Omanis. Although accurate statistics are hard to obtain since a national census has never been carried out, the projected annual growth rate of secondary school pupils is close to 50%. English is introduced in the fourth year of elementary school, but educational standards vary considerably throughout the country, the sharpest division being evident between the capital area and the remote regions, where some schools provide boarding facilities for a substantial proportion of pupils from inaccessible mountain villages.

The major consequence of this situation is the difficulty of determining the probable EL level of students on entry to the university when it admits its first class in 1986. Three years is a long time in Oman, and there could well be significant changes before then. However, a certain amount of hard information about the current position has been obtained from three sources:

1.1 Scores on the ELTS Test. One piece of objective evidence about the English proficiency of the brightest Omani secondary school graduates was furnished by an analysis of the English language test results obtained by students proceeding to Britain for post-secondary studies under the Access to Higher Education scheme.² The British Council administers the English Language Testing Service tests of English proficiency before these students leave Oman in order to determine how much language tuition they will need in Britain prior to beginning technical studies in English. The minimum band usually required for admission to a British university is 6.0, the description of a Band 6 user of English being: "Competent user: reasonably good communicator, although somewhat deficient in fluency and with occasional blocks to communication."

The average band of a total of 63 Omani students who went to Britain to begin post-secondary study in 1981 and 1982 was 3.2, the highest band being 5.0 (by one student) and the lowest 2.0. Almost all of these students had obtained a final average of over 70% in their secondary school leaving examination and some scored as high as 95%. The British Council's statistics show that academic excellence, as measured by the Omani secondary school final examination, has no discernible relationship with proficiency in English: all that can be stated with confidence is that the average standard in English of bright Omani secondary school graduates is low.³

1.2 TOEFL Test Scores. The English proficiency of Omani students proceeding on scholarships to the U.S. is no better than those who go to the U.K. Only the very best secondary school graduates (those scoring more than 80% average) are considered, and yet virtually all of them need 6 to 9 months of intensive English tuition in the U.S. before they achieve TOEFL scores high enough for them to gain admission to university.

1.3 Surveys of English in Secondary School. The third set of information came from two surveys on the standard of English among final-year secondary students. A pilot study was carried out in April 1982 when a proficiency test graded on four levels from beginner to pre-university was given to 69 students from four schools (Bint 1982). The results showed that the majority of students would need a substantial input of English language teaching before they could reach an appropriate level for entrance to the university. In a more comprehensive study conducted in November and December of 1982, 149 students from eight schools, one in every educational region in the country, were tested. The results supported those of the earlier survey: even the top 20% of school-leavers would need a great deal of assistance in reaching the necessary standard to follow English-medium university-level courses (Adams Smith 1982).⁴

It has become clear that the most serious problem in the teaching of English in the schools is the supply of suitable teachers. Since very few Omanis are yet qualified, 90% of the English language teachers are recruited from abroad, either in Arab countries or in India, Pakistan and Sri Lanka. Most of these teachers have not been trained in the methods of teaching English as a foreign language, so there is an urgent need for an extensive programme of in-service teacher training. Other factors affecting the EL level are the number of hours of instruction, the syllabus, and availability of resources and the rise in student numbers.

In the survey report specific measures were recommended to counter the danger that English standards might actually fall with the sharp increase in secondary school rolls expected over the next five years. The report also emphasised the need for selective university admission standards, especially until pre-university education in Oman has had time to stabilise and consolidate.

Most of the difficulties outlined above are outside the immediate province of a university language centre. However, co-operation between the ELT unit in the Ministry of Education and the Language Centre co-ordinator has proved so beneficial that the principle of vertical integration or maximum school/university articulation has been evolved. Language Centre staff who take up appointments in the year prior to the admission of the first class will spend a proportion of their time on secondment to the ELT unit in the Ministry of Education. The primary purpose is to ensure that they become fully aware of the English teaching environment in secondary schools, while at the same time exerting some influence in helping to upgrade standards. The Language Centre co-ordinator has assisted with in-service training of Omani teachers of English, the planning of a revised English secondary syllabus, and an extensive reading programme for secondary schools. A committee comprising the Language Centre co-ordinator and representatives from the ELT unit and

other departments in the Ministry of Education has been set up to monitor the level of English in the schools and make recommendations.

Along with the lack of hard information about the English language level of incoming students is the absence of any decision as to their number in 1986 and subsequent years. As a matter of principle, the University Foundation Committee has stated that the planned 582 university places will not necessarily all be filled in the early years of the life of the university, and that only applicants meeting high admission standards (still to be determined) will be considered. Clearly the number of Language Centre staff required is directly linked to the size of the student body. In the absence of a definite decision about numbers, staffing will be planned for the maximum intake from the very beginning.

2. Ascertaining Clients' Expectations. Another area to be investigated was the university's expectations of the learner, and in particular of his English competence. Dudley Evans (1983) recommends in addition the investigation of the learners' expectations of the English programme, but in the absence of students at Sultan Qaboos University this dimension has been ignored for the present.

One of the earlier decisions of the University Foundation Committee was that all students should be admitted into a general university foundation course running for a period of up to one and a half years. During this time they would be expected to complete all the university general requirements, including Arabic and English language. All the students from the school science stream, aiming at eventual admission to the English-medium colleges of Science, Agriculture, Engineering and Medicine, would also be required to take a heavy load of science courses in English. This requirement would not apply to students from the school arts stream whose sights were set on the Arabic-medium College of Education and Islamic Sciences. Students would thus be divided from the very beginning into two separate groups with different needs for English. The Arabic-medium education group, with the exception of English majors, would not need English as a tool for study. It would therefore hardly be necessary for them to reach the same terminal level as students in the science foundation group, all of whom would be seeking admission to English-medium colleges.

The co-ordinators for each of the English-medium colleges provided a statement about the English language ability expected of students at the point of entry to their specialist courses. The College of Science sub-committee recommended that by the time students completed the Science Foundation course they should possess the following skills:

1. the ability to converse in English with their tutors about matters within their disciplines;
2. the ability to understand and react quickly to spoken English instructions, particularly of a safety nature in the laboratory environment;
3. the ability to take notes in English on a lecture given in English;
4. the ability to read and comprehend technical textbooks written in English; and
5. the ability to write essays and solve problems in English.

They also recommend training in library skills as a part of the English programme.

The co-ordinators of the Colleges of Agriculture, Engineering and Medicine were in general agreement with this list, although they added the writing of technical reports and research papers, and a knowledge of basic engineering or medical terminology where appropriate.

In terms of EL proficiency, in the absence of any more specific directive, it was assumed that for all the science group this would mean Band 6 as described previously, with additional ESP courses in medicine and engineering to meet specific college needs.

The task group of consultants for social sciences and humanities curriculum in the Arabic-medium College of Education, when presented with the same question, asked for a relatively limited ability: a reading level sufficient to allow students to understand printed materials in English in their specialised fields of history, geography, philosophy, psychology or sociology. The consultants for the EL teaching curriculum in the College of Education, on the other hand, predictably said that they would expect Band 6 competence in all four skill areas. The implication of these three sets of information was the need to plan three completely separate Foundation English courses on different levels:

1. English for Science and Technology for students proceeding to courses in science, agriculture, engineering, medicine and science education;
2. English for Education, emphasising reading and translation; and
3. English for EL teaching majors

3. Bridging the Gap. Having identified three distinct groups of learners and established in general terms probable entry and exit levels, we had to decide how best to bridge the gap.

3.1 Quantity: Hours of Instruction Required. Attention was first directed to the number of hours of instruction likely to be required. The Foundation Committee, having already rejected a proposal for a maximum of 150 hours, had made time available for up to 450 hours over the first two semesters for those students who might need so much. Information was derived from two main sources:

1. a comparison with the hours of English language teaching for English-medium courses in similar universities in the region, as shown in Table II. It can be seen that the average total found necessary by institutions in the Arabian Gulf with much longer-established educational systems is close to 500 hours, generally spread over four semesters (See Table II);
2. the experiences of the British Council in Oman. After almost four years of using the ELIS test as a measure of language proficiency, the staff of the British Council Direct Teaching Operation have found that it takes on average between 560 and 620 hours of tuition, depending on intensity, motivation and educational background, to raise the level of an Omani's English from Band 4 to Band 6. Similar studies further north along the Gulf have recommended even higher figures.

Not only did the maximum amount of English which had been allowed for by the University Foundation Committee, 450 hours during the first two semesters of the foundation course, seem unlikely to be adequate for the science group, but the distribution, i.e., the cutting off of English after two semesters instead of continuing it for four, was out of line with the experience of other institutions. We felt that the Foundation Science English course should be spread over three semesters, succeeded by specialist ESP courses in the fourth semester. Given the impossibility of increasing the hours allocated to English in the first year, we decided to add to this and at the same time fill the third semester gap preceding ESP courses in Semester 4 by offering a Science English tutorial, five hours per week, as part of the Foundation Science package.

The students entering the College of Education and Islamic Sciences had resolved themselves into two groups: a relatively small number, shown as English Language Teaching Majors in Table III, who would be taking English-medium courses in language, methodology and literature with the aim of becoming English language teachers in the secondary schools, and the larger group who would be majoring in Arabic-medium humanities, social sciences or Islamic sciences and whose needs for English would not go far beyond a reading knowledge in their specialised areas. The first group, we felt, would need the full 450 hours available in Semesters 1 and 2, whereas such an investment of time would be difficult to justify for the second group. For them it was decided that an appropriate course could be planned in a total of 225 hours over the first year, supplemented by ESP reading tutorials at appropriate points in subsequent semesters (See Table III).

3.2 Quality: Methodology, Facilities and Class Size. The provision of a given number of hours of instruction is not in itself any guarantee of adequate learning. In order to maximise the effectiveness of a time allocation which for English-medium study was still likely to be insufficient for many students, several recommendations were made.

3.2.1 English for Specific Purposes. Separate English programmes meeting the specific needs of the three distinct groups of students so far identified should be provided.

3.2.2. The Joint Devising and Co-operative Teaching for Support Courses. Foundation Course English would be planned as support and study skills courses integrated horizontally as closely as possible with concurrent science teaching, with English and Science staff doing some team teaching. The enormous motivational effect of this approach was emphasised by the Director of the King Abdulaziz University English Language Centre, who, writing in 1980, noted that "All our considerable experience with dozens of courses and thousands of students points in one direction: training in technical English for academic purposes must be integrated into the course for which these skills are intended" (Koe 1980). The final steps beyond the Foundation Course would take place on entry, for example, to the College of Engineering, where the language and study skill focus would become narrower, e.g., English for Engineering Workshop Practice. Course design from Semester 4 on would be done through the close cooperation of the Language Centre course co-ordinators and their opposite numbers in the colleges.

3.2.3 Highly Qualified and Experienced Language Instructors.

3.2.4 Small Classes, with group and pair work and plenty of opportunities for active language use.

3.2.5 Well-designed Classrooms with the potential for using audio-visual aids.

3.2.6 A Self-access English Language Resource Centre to develop skills in independent learning.

3.3 Selective Intake of Students. Since all the above assumes a minimum performance level close to Band 4 on entry, a selective university admission policy would be crucial, especially if standards of English in the schools show no appreciable improvement over the next three years. Such a policy has been agreed by the university Foundation Committee.

3.4 'Sensitization' of College Staff. Many of the staff members of the colleges with little or no experience of teaching students who are not native English speakers may be unaware of the types of language and study skills problems their students may face. The Language Centre will organise short 'sensitization' programmes for staff teaching the Science Foundation course and other key staff in the colleges, hoping thereby to be able to reduce the necessary exit competence to something below Band 6.

3.5 Status

3.5.1 Independence of the Language Centre. The real three-pipe problem arose from a proposal to attach the Language Centre to the English section of the Arts Department in the College of Education. This was countered over a period of months by a mixture of education and manoeuvring. The difference between the functions of a Language Centre and an English Literature and Linguistics Department was spelt out at length by Clive Holes in the design document (Adams Smith et al, 1982), and the imbalance caused by a Language Centre dwarfing a tiny department and playing havoc with staff-student ratios was emphasised. Support was recruited from college representatives for the Language Centre to have a direct and unimpeded channel to all deans for whose students it provided courses. In a separate report, the Language Centre was compared with the University Library, Computing Centre and Centre for Educational Technology as a university-wide service centre. Eventually an agreement was reached that the Language Centre should have independent status, with control over its own budget, recruitment and the organisation of its work, and that its director should be a member of the University Council with similar status to the director of the University Library.

3.5.2 Academic Status of Language Centre Staff. It has been agreed that language instructors and course co-ordinators, provided they have master's degrees, should be placed on the general university salary scale as assistant lecturers or lecturers. The director would have professorial status, and the assistant directors would be assistant professors. Conditions of contract with regard to such matters as housing and allowances for travel and education would be the same as for academic staff of similar rank. A certain degree of

career structure is provided in the large number of salary increments and the possibility of promotion from language instructor to course co-ordinator to assistant director (See Table IV).

3.5.3 Emphasis on Professionalism. Further to emphasise that language instructors are not merely teaching hacks, a maximum teaching load of 15 hours per week was proposed and accepted. The other functions of the Language Centre, including research, evaluation and staff development, have been made clear. An ESP reference collection has been started and an in-house journal is planned.

3.5.4 Training of Omani staff. To solve the problem of the present small numbers of ELT-qualified Omanis, suitable graduates need to be identified for further training in Applied Linguistics or TEFL to M.A. level in the U.K. or the U.S.A. It is hoped that the career structure and academic status of Language Centre staff will be sufficiently attractive to halt the drift to the English literature department which has been experienced in institutions elsewhere.

CONCLUSION

Planning, of course, is one thing; implementation quite another. It remains to be seen whether this fragile seed so carefully planted, to borrow the metaphor used by Holliday and Cooke, will germinate satisfactorily, and how far the appearance and characteristics of the mature plant will differ from those described in the passages taken from the design document.

ENDNOTES

¹For comments on the "ideal type", see Holliday and Cooke.

²The information in this section and much of the following was obtained by Dr. Clive Holes during a British Council consultancy in Oman, and is contained at greater length in the report submitted to the University Foundation Committee in 1982 (See references).

³A preliminary analysis of the scores of 136 students who took the ELIS test in the summer of 1983 gives a mean band score of 3.7, the range being from 6.0 (two students) to 2.5.

⁴The survey was repeated in November-December 1983 with similar results.

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APPENDIX

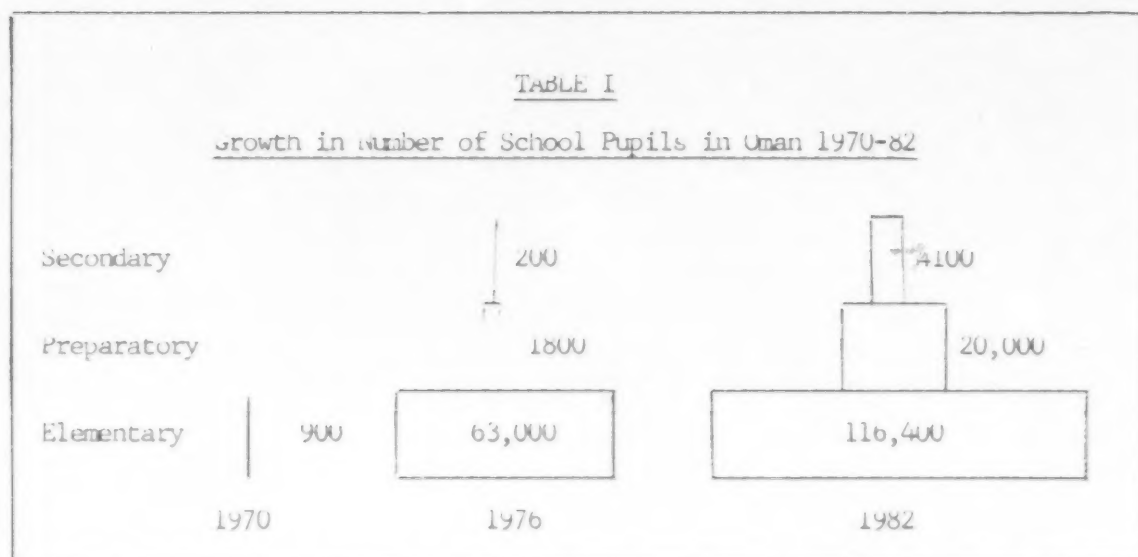


TABLE II

Comparative Hours of ELT, per Week and in Total, for English-Medium
Courses in Universities around the Gulf

(This information was taken from submissions to the steering
committee of the new Gulf University in 1981.)

HOURS PER WEEK

	Summer Intensive	Year 1		Year 2		TOTAL HOURS
		Sem 1	Sem 2	Sem 1	Sem 2	
University College of Bahrain	-	14	11 (General	3-6 English)	3-6	375 - 555
King Faisal University	-	26	13 (General	- English)	-	585
Arabian Gulf University (planned)	120 total	6	5	3	2	360
King Abdulaziz University	-	20	10	3-7 ----- E S P -----	3-7	455 - 530
Kuwait University (Science)	-	15	5 (non- credit)	5 (non- credit)	5	150* - 450
			----- E S P -----			
Kuwait University (Allied Health)	-	10	8	5 ----- E S P -----	5-9	420-480

*only 15% of intake

TABLE III

Outline of English Courses, Sultan Qaboos University

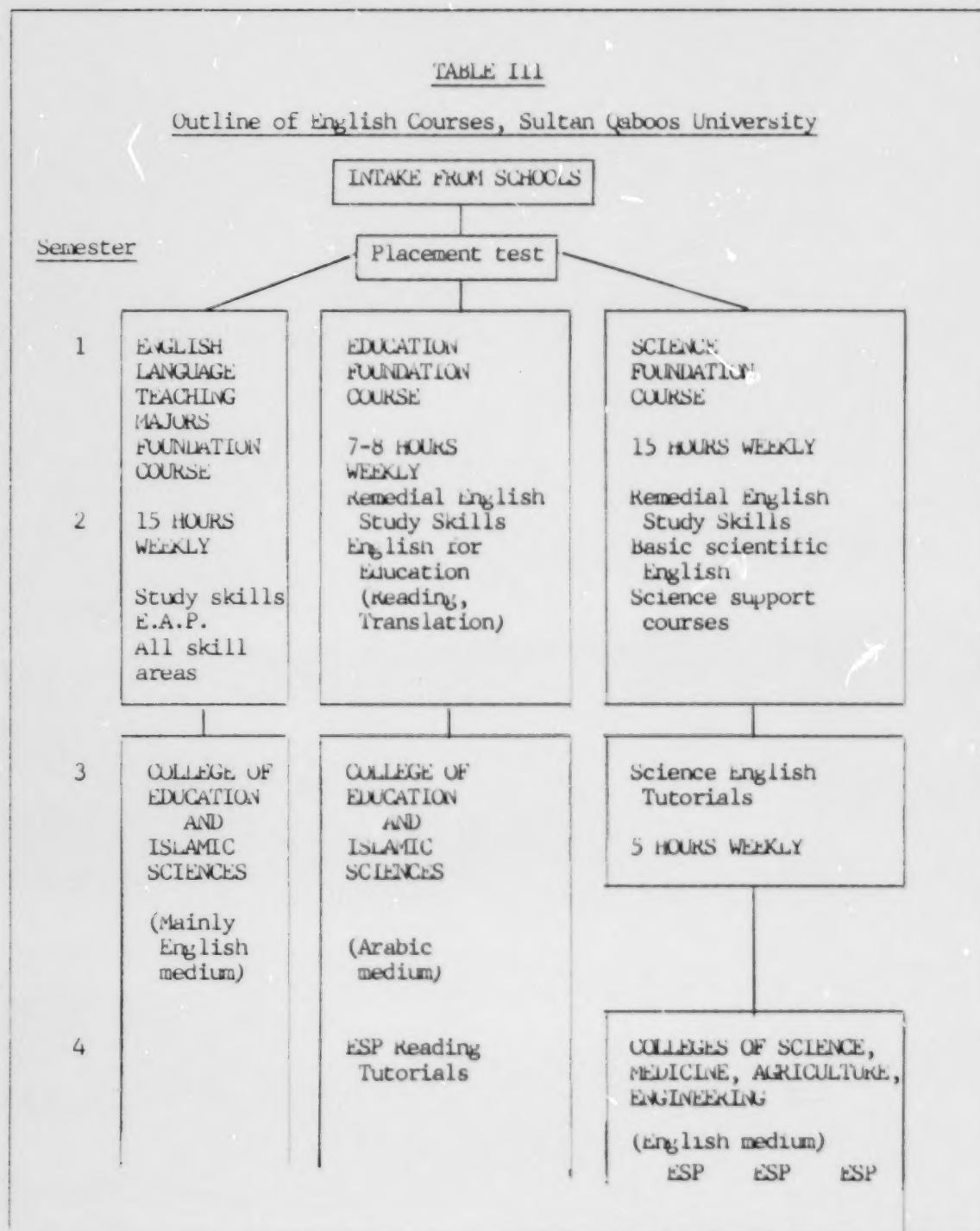
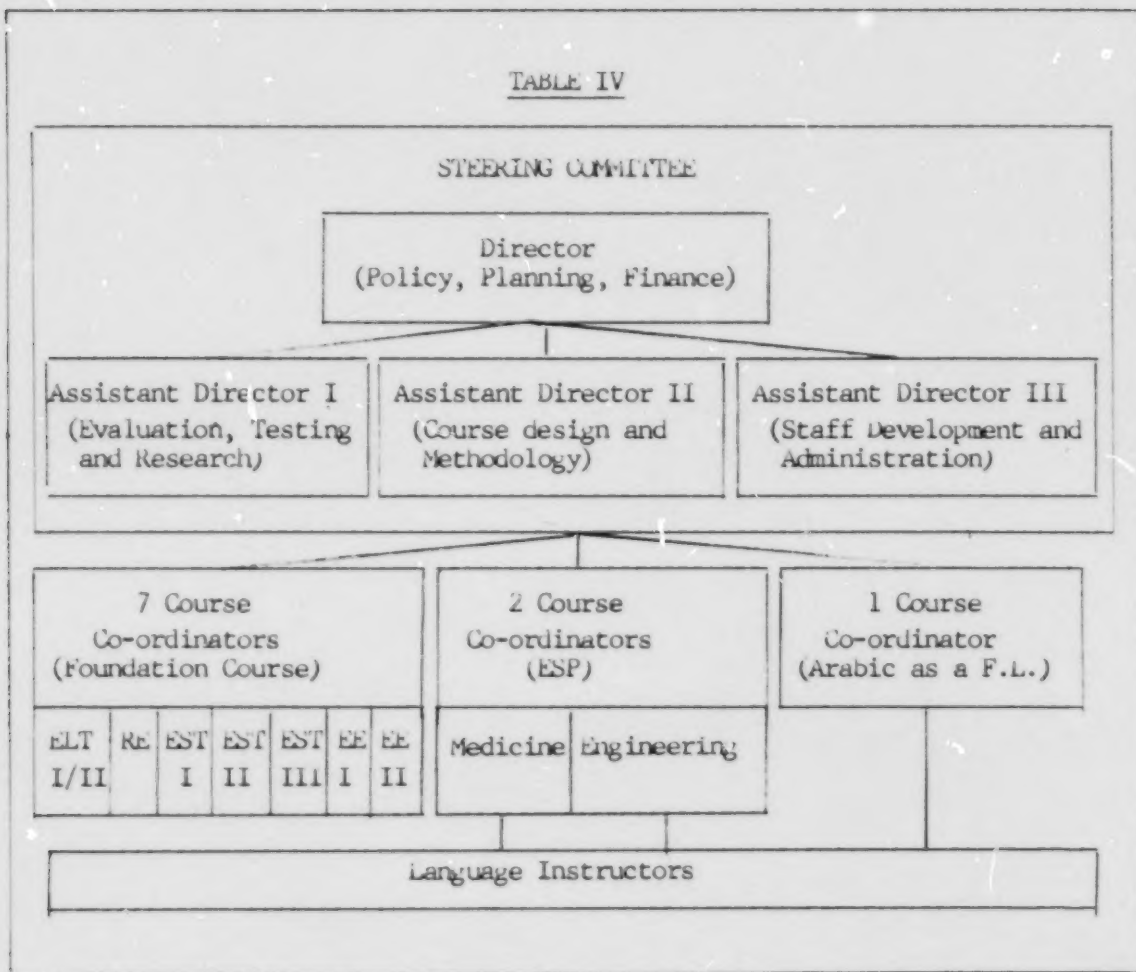


TABLE IV



TEACHING ESL TO ARABIC-SPEAKING STUDENTS THROUGH THE USE OF

CREATIVE DRAMATICS

Zaka Khan
State University of New York
Suffern, New York

Let us explore some important questions. Do Arabic-speaking students at their universities have different learning styles than other university students? Do they have a different motivation for learning a second language? Yes, I believe they do. Recent evidence suggests that success in learning a language is dependent upon numerous factors such as personality, temperament, attitudes and habit. These factors, when combined, create a phenomenon we know as the student's learning style. Learning style is different for each individual. Some students learn more effectively through the use of one sense modality rather than another. These learning sense modalities include: listening or auditory; reading or visual; iconics, which includes illustrations, pictures, graphs, etc.; and direct experience or contact with the subject matter. Let us now begin to explore how we can combine these factors to produce students who are comfortable and proficient in a second language.

How can creative dramatics help the Arabic speaking students in achieving communication skills in English? Drama itself is a form of communication, and can provide the ESL class with a strong forum to move from initial dialogs toward real life communications. Thus dramatic plays in the classroom should utilize pantomime, role-playing, improvisation, audiovideo taping, discussion, research, problem solving and generalization. In addition, these should revolve around many separate subjects and should be used in conjunction with the entire gamut of educational media, such as paints, musical instruments, recordings, costumes, literature, films, etc. Instructor creativity accounts for the added dimension in student interest when a routine pattern exercise is made functional. The relationship between the classroom and life experience is self-evident, but it is especially significant for second language learners. The more meaningful and real the language learning activities are, the greater the potential for learning to take place. To this fundamental ESL principle may be added the notion that the more creative the learning activities are, the stronger the impact of the material on the students. Creative dramatics in ESL provides learners with the opportunity for language learning in life-like situations that usually do not fail to make a strong impression on them. Teaching efforts in the ESL classrooms following these guidelines can be truly fruitful.

Many of the goals of creative dramatics are perfectly in accord with the goals of teaching ESL, even at the beginning level. Moreover, creative dramatics seeks especially to bring about positive changes in the attitudes of the learner. There are many students in intensive and non-intensive English programs at the university level who speak no English and who often feel lost and negatively about themselves. They may see themselves as outcasts who will never be able to compete because they believe they will never gain fluency in the English language.

Both ESL and creative dramatics work for a development of skills of communication. Both also work for a development of a positive life orientation. The end goal of both areas is that students will learn the communication skills necessary to cope with their environment intellectually, socially and emotionally. In both ESL and creative dramatics, the influence of the instructors is crucial, not only in developing the oral and written skills of language but also in strengthening self-confidence in their students. Overly demanding or critical instructors will fail miserably in their efforts to impart these skills and this self-assurance to their students. On the other hand, instructors who are patient, friendly and willing to expand routine instruction and to experiment and who also have an ability to communicate trust and confidence, will most certainly generate in their students a positive learning environment. Here it would be quite appropriate to quote from The Prophet of Khalil Gibran. "The teacher who walks in the shadow of the temple among his followers gives not of his wisdom but rather of his faith and his lovingness. If he is indeed wise he does not bid you enter the house of his wisdom, but rather leads you to the threshold of your own mind." Learners who are encouraged to feel positively about themselves and who are helped to use their creativity productively will be successful in using their new language and will feel successful about their learning efforts in general. Let us now discuss some of these modalities in detail.

PANTOMIME

Pantomime is an example of creative dramatic expression and is usually practiced without the use of words. It plays an important role at the beginning level of learning ESL. Often new students cannot communicate anything verbally to the instructor. During the first few sessions of a class, teachers can show that through pantomime the class can communicate with them and vice versa. In later classes, pantomime can be used in guessing games to learn new vocabulary and dialog. A few students may get up and act out a scene. The rest of the class can supply the proper dialog. Activities like "what I do in the morning" and "Guess my occupation" are conducive to this type of pantomime. Following are four exercises which also illustrate this technique:

1. Shaving in the morning (what am I doing?)
2. Policeman (who am I?)
3. A stranger in a town (where am I?)
4. Accepting a ride as a hitch hiker (what am I doing?)

In the more advanced levels of ESL, pantomime can be used in explaining the subtle differences between words and expressions, such as glance, stare, glare, peek, and wink or waiting anxiously, waiting impatiently and waiting fearfully. It can be used in describing words that are not easily defined or translated, such as boredom and anxiety. Pantomime helps to give students a sure non-verbal means of communication, as they learn the words and phrases to describe their needs and ideas. Implicit in this is that instructors have to plan their lessons carefully every day.

ROLE-PLAYING

If skill in understanding the feelings, thoughts, and roles of others is essential for a successful interpretation of events and relationships, then an instructional tool that provides such experiences is very helpful. Role-playing is a method of instruction that meets these needs. Individuals take on the roles of other people and act out the others' feelings, thoughts and behavior.

Many teachers have used role-playing effectively to help solve classroom interpersonal problems and to teach communication and human-relation skills in the classroom. It provides students with a realistic communication situation and it compels them to actively listen to the speaker. It also brings them in contact with a new language, in addition to helping them discover areas where they need additional practice.

There is no pre-established language for this technique, only a set of instructions that initiates a conversation. Usually the conversation/role-play is between the teacher and one or more students. Here is a sample of a role-play format.²

Procedure:

1. Explain the situation.
2. Select the 'cast'. Usually it is best to cast yourself in one of the key roles.
3. If a tape recorder is available, have one of the students record the role-play.
4. Have the other students take notes. A simple system is to have the student note-taker construct a log of the conversation, noting only the opening words of each new line and if possible, the last word of each line.
5. Role-play the situation. Try to let it develop naturally. Don't let it go on too long. Two or three minutes is sufficient.
6. Replay the tape. Pause after each utterance for questions and answers. If the students don't have any questions, ask simple questions such as "What did he say?"
7. Gradually reconstruct a written version of the role-play, using the tape and/or the log.

Variations can be adapted to this. For example:

1. Have two students do the role-play while you listen for errors. Do not interrupt the role play while it is in progress. During the replay, comment on and correct the students' sentences.
2. After doing the role-play once, select a new cast and do it again. Have one of the students take your role.
3. Add a new element to the instructions, one that will force the role-play to take a slightly different direction.
4. Use the written reconstruction of the role-play as a mini-drama.

Some possible role-play situations are:

- a social visit in a home;
- interviewing a job applicant;
- asking to borrow something;
- a visit to a doctor or dentist;
- turning down an invitation gracefully.

AUDIO AND VIDEO RECORDING

Recording dialogs between students is a simple procedure and is an excellent motivating device in getting them to do their best in saying their part. Students' curiosity is invariably aroused by the prospect of listening to themselves on the recording playback. Moreover, the feedback provided to them is of great value in improving their oral proficiency when specific points for further work are identified by the instructor. Stopping a tape and replaying particular sections of a dialog can be profitably exploited by the class as a whole or by students working individually or in small groups.

If videotape equipment is available to the instructor, students can be motivated to refine their dramatics presentation to a surprisingly sophisticated level. Videotaping a presentation that has been developed over a period of time is an excellent tool for charting the student's rate of progress. The videotaping not only gives students the incentive to do well but also provides them with complete feedback as to their non-verbal, as well as verbal, communication skills. Like an audiotape recording, a videotape can be stopped at key points. Specific sections of the tape can be replayed as often as necessary. Students can see and hear for themselves how effectively they have performed. Judgments about grammatical correctness, clearness of pronunciation, voice volume and tone, gestures and body movement can be made by students objectively with help from the instructor. A videotape of a particularly well-done presentation can also be shown to other English classes. Additional students may then be stimulated to try dramatics themselves. Proficiency in the use of communication skills will then be improved among an even greater number of Arabic-speaking students.

IMPROVISATION

Improvisations are usually a treat for both the class and the instructor. These can be used at the beginning level to dramatize dialogs and create new ones from learned vocabulary words. They are a means of introducing and dealing with conflict, particularly the linguistic conflicts that Arabic-speaking students face each day. Improvisations can be based on daily classroom or college activities, such as 'how to study at home', 'buying a lunch in the college restaurant', and 'buying books in the bookstore'.

On the intermediate and advanced levels, improvisation can be used to dramatize stories that have been read or to show the proper way to go on a job interview. Improvisation can be very rewarding in content area lessons, too.

If instructors are creative and use the creativity of their students as a resource, learning English can be transformed from a routine chore to a fun, exciting and growing experience in which real communication is paramount.

PICTURES

A picture file can be an integral part of any ESL classroom, but it may present a cultural problem (perhaps stemming from religious reasons) for instructors, who should therefore be sure to consult with their department chair about the feasibility of this technique before initiating this procedure. Describing the objects or events of a picture is a valuable activity at any level. Easy questions like, "What do you see?" or "What are the people doing?", can lead into more difficult questions, such as "Why are they there?" or "How do you know that the little boy is happy?" Simple pictures portraying activities such as soccer games are such sources for new vocabulary and its reinforcement. Identifying objects with labels and talking about them also give the learners the opportunity to communicate with their environment.

On the intermediate and advanced levels, pictures are useful for creating dialog -- verbal and written. They are also a means of teaching language through mood. At this level, the pictures contain less in terms of activities, so that the students can project their experiences and emotions into describing them. The new vocabulary will usually be more abstract and the dialogs more emotionally charged. An example of this might be a man holding a baby and playing with it. This series of pictures can be arranged so as to convey a story which can be referred to as 'visual literacy'. Expanding the visual to the verbal then logically follows as the next step, and through the use of tape recorders, the visual becomes a verbal plus a visual composition. The final step involves the transformation of the audiovisual into a written composition -- a composition that has been molded and shaped by a sequential, three-step series by the instructor. Parenthetically, a way to enhance the excitement for the writing stage is to use a word processor. The use of a computer in this manner allows for corrections without the tedious need for rewrites, in addition to the provision of printed, tangible papers that the student can keep or distribute. This guided practice has been found to be a necessary component in a successful ESL program, and in conjunction with the use of pictures, tapes and computers, stirs the students' interest and increases their desire to perform at their best.

SCENE REHEARSAL AND PERFORMANCE

Rehearsal and performance of scenes can be powerful language learning exercises for students of intensive programs -- especially when students develop original scripts that relate to problems, conflicts, and decisions they face at home and at college. However, the instructor must be willing to invest more creativity than is necessary in the usual ESL activity. Carefully guiding the students and maintaining their enthusiasm at a high level, the

teacher must follow through with the various stages of development carried out by a regular theater group putting on a performance. The difference, of course, is that the script writers, the directors, the actors, and the audience will all be ESL learners who are still struggling to communicate fluently in their new language. The key is for the teacher to identify and to maintain the language-learning motivation which is naturally built into life-like situations selected by the students for development into scenes they will want to perform.

The final step is to present the class with several problems that are relevant to class members and that have high potential for a dramatic presentation. Each prospective member is read with the class and is discussed. Thus, language learning occurs from the first step. High interest content for each problem is crucial. Students will not be as concerned about the difficulty of language structures as they will be about the subject matter of a possible script.

Students should next choose a problem to develop into a scene. The instructor allows groups of two or three students to work on a common problem. Each group gets together in a different part of the classroom to discuss the situation and to write out a script. Usually one entire class period is required for this step. At the end of the class, each group turns in its finished script. The instructor can then check for gross errors and correct these. For the most part, the script should not be altered very much at all.

The instructor should reproduce the scripts -- usually half a page or a page in length -- and should then type up the scenes, if at all possible, so that each class member has a legible and personal copy of the different original scenes. The script can then be read and discussed by the class as a whole.

Once the scripts have been read and discussed, the class should then break up into groups again to rehearse and memorize lines. Complete script memorization is assigned for homework. However, time in class must be provided for actors in a scene to rehearse together. On the appointed day, each group finally performs its scene. The instructor should give the performers a relatively good mark for this type of activity since an attempt at performance is more demanding than the ordinary recitation class.

PRODUCTION FOR AUDIENCES

Students in extensive ESL programs can be encouraged to rise to the challenge of performing a skit or a play for a live audience. This enables them to achieve the goal of using their language as a totality. It provides them with a learning experience that allows them to display their highest level of language proficiency, in addition to fostering a healthy sense of competition among group members. At the same time, reading skills are also developed.

In studying a script, students improve their reading skills in a variety of ways. Vocabulary is increased. Students must learn the meaning of all the words in a script in order to know how to use them in a performance. If they have really learned the vocabulary of the script, they will be able to improvise with substitute terms. Even an original script developed by an individual student or by the class as a whole will contain words and expressions not clearly understood by everyone. In the context of a dramatic presentation, the vocabulary proficiency of the more able students will translate into common knowledge for the group. Sentence punctuation becomes more meaningful to students as they learn to interpret commas, question marks, and exclamation points properly. In turn, intonation and pauses at junctures are given authentic verbal expression when script lines are acted out.

An ample chance for all ESL students to exercise their creative faculties is afforded them through dramatics. Since they are playing a role, they are less inhibited in their attempts to use the language they are still trying to master. In their efforts to interpret a role well, students seem to strive harder to improve their pronunciation and their voice tone. With appropriate guidance from the teacher, students succeed in enhancing their facility, clarity and precision in the oral use of English. Positive habits for speaking, acting and moving in public are acquired by students as they go through the process of preparing and presenting a variety of dramatic presentations. The instructor, in turn, has the opportunity to reinforce the appropriate facets of student efforts over an extended period of time, while helping students to refine their speech and their body movement in a cumulative manner. Students become more conscious of their bodies, of their gestures and of the way they walk. Physical coordination is often improved as a result of participation in a dramatic presentation.

Perhaps the most important outcome of the use of creative dramatics in ESL is the sense of cooperation, responsibility and tolerance that is engendered in a group that has worked diligently to do a good job. To make the presentation a success, group members learn to work in harmony with others. They learn that they must wait their turn to speak and to act if the skit or the play is going to be done properly. The self-awareness of each individual in a production is intensified -- especially in understanding the self in relation to others in the group. This is the first step in learning of any type, and particularly in the realm of communication.

To summarize, the learning of valuable communication skills takes place through an enjoyable recreational activity when dramatics is used in ESL. It is often a welcome change of pace from the regular routine for the instructor as well as the student. Also, the use of dramatics provides an excellent outlet for emotional tension for both the learner and the instructor.

Finally, one of the most powerful rewards and an incentive for a student -- as well as for all of us -- is live, public recognition for a job well done. Nothing intensifies the innate motivation of a student as much as audience applause and words of praise for a production well done.

The language learning potential in creative dramatics is very great and needs to be explored by more ESL teachers.

The teaching of English as a Second Language is a difficult and complex task, yet it is one that can be done in a meaningful and rewarding way for both instructors and students. The former, by their use of various techniques discussed in this paper, have at their disposal an almost unlimited number of avenues open to them to get across their message. Students, on the other hand, are given a variety of modalities, many of them unique and exciting which they can use to pursue their quest for proficiency. Together, teachers and students progress in exciting new discoveries. Language takes on new meaning and messages are sent and thoughts conveyed so that gradually, non-English speaking students become secure in their ability to communicate in a language that at one time seemed impossible to master.

ENDNOTES

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TECHNIQUES

BEGINNING APPLICATIONS OF ENGLISH:

MAKING A THREE-DIMENSIONAL MODEL TO SCALE

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The making of a model to scale is one of several possible learning/teaching strategies to guide more advanced intermediate EFL trainees from learning as a mere academic activity toward more practical goals. First movements in this direction can most usefully be made while the trainees are still within the relative security of the classroom. Often, this will be before they enter specific skills training where attention is primarily focused on the demands of job-related tasks. Thus, while still in the English classroom where analyses of linguistic difficulties can be carried out, trainees learn to appreciate language being used with practical goals in view.

Such aims have been implicit in the philosophical thrust underlying a line of curriculum development at the International Airports English Language Training Program. Here the phasing from more formal language learning to English for further training is being given the attention such vital transitions require.

The process of making a scale model offers a number of possibilities to achieve goals important to the success of overall training. The trainees' own classroom provides an eminently convenient 'item' for this purpose. The first goal -- and probably of paramount importance -- is to develop ability in the trainees to follow instructions in English implicitly, as well as to practice more abstract thinking. Secondly, the exercise calls upon trainees to practice accurate measurement of an area. Thirdly, the twin notions of ratio and scale are introduced, perhaps for the first time for some trainees. Fourthly, trainees actually construct a three-dimensional model in paper to the scale of the original measured area. Thus, our students may move to conceptualizing three-dimensional representations.

Depending on the range of individual ability in a given class, the time needed to complete this project will average five hours, but could take up to ten.

SITUATION AND MATERIALS

The trainees' own classroom or communication skills workshop provides a convenient base from which to work.

1. One sheet of one-half centimeter squared graph paper, at least 30 cms. by 22 cms.
2. One standard pencil per trainee.
3. One ruler, at least 30 cms. in length.
4. Several tape-rules at least one meter long, minimum one to every three trainees.
5. Several pairs of scissors, at least one pair for every two trainees.
6. Several exacto knives.
7. Several 'dry' glue sticks.
8. One roll of transparent tape and/or sufficient number of three cm. square pieces of plastic laminate.
9. Poster board sufficient in size for mounting completed models.
10. Broad felt-tip pen or similar instrument for lettering.
11. An optional V/A (enlarged representation of graph paper), one-half cm.: five cms.

We have found that at the initial stage of this project a statement of the whole purpose of the exercise is difficult to communicate meaningfully to all the trainees. Objectives, therefore, will be stated at various stages.

STAGE I

Trainees are divided according to convenience into small groups and assigned to measure specific aspects of the room occupied. Thus, one group will measure one of a set of opposing walls, a second group will measure the second set, a third will measure the floor, a fourth will measure windows (noting overall dimensions and distance from the floor and nearest corner). A fifth group will follow a similar procedure with the door to the room, again noting the door dimensions in relation to adjacent walls and so on.

Each group will carefully note the measurements of their assigned areas on paper.

Notes to Instructors: Because classroom floors are commonly tiled, trainees may be shown the shortcut of measuring one tile and multiplying accordingly. Rounding off of measurements to the nearest meter or half meter may also be encouraged. Teachers should be prepared for a considerable amount of movement in the classroom. It is recommended that they constantly monitor the activities of each group.

STAGE II

Each group reports its findings which are then tabulated on the board. At this point, fractional measurements are rounded off. The instructor explains/reiterates the significance of the table on the board, and asks/answers questions for the class.

STAGE III

The notion of scale is introduced at this point. The instructor explains the use of the graph paper and draws attention to the one-half cm. graph paper supplied to each trainee. The instructor points out that one cm. (two linear squares of the graph paper) actually measures one centimeter. The trainees confirm this for themselves by using rulers on their own paper. The instructor adopts a scale of 1 cm.: 50 cms. for simplicity and describes how, for example, a room measuring four meters by six meters can be scaled down to eight cms. by twelve cms. on the graph paper.

Notes to Instructors: Before trainees execute this last part, instruct them to fold their papers very carefully laterally and horizontally in order to find an approximate midpoint at the intersection of the folds. At this midpoint, they will mark a dot on the pencil. The usefulness of this procedure will become apparent later.

With their open sheets of one-half cm. graph paper in front of them, trainees may now bisect this midpoint with one eight cm. horizontal line (drawn four cms. each side of the midpoint) with another drawn twelve cms. vertically (six cms. each side of the midpoint). The trainees may now possess an overview of the task. However, some trainees who have not had the benefit of math instruction at this level may become confused, and it may be necessary to reiterate this point.

STAGE IV

The notion of three dimensions is introduced at this point. The instructor should state that: "We now have a plan of the floor of our room, and since we can see that the length and width of the floor have walls adjacent to the sides -- plus we know the height of the walls -- we can now draw the walls to scale."

STAGE V

Bring attention to the relative positions of doors and windows of the room the trainees are drawing to scale. Ask one group to measure the dimensions of the window, while noting the distances of the frame-edges from both the floor and the adjacent walls. When completed, trainees write down their measurements and the instructor notes them on the board. Another group follows a similar procedure with the door (typically, a standard door may be considered to be two meters high by one meter wide). Trainees are instructed to note on which side the door is hinged.

Trainees are now asked to identify which of the walls on their room diagram contains the doors and windows. They are then told that their floor is to become the 'roof' of their three-dimensional model. They should therefore position the outlines of the doors and windows they are drawing with this reversing in mind.

Notes to Instructors: Inspect exactly where each trainee is about to begin the drawing, guiding as necessary. In our example, the lower edge of a single window is positioned one meter above the floor (two cms.) and one-half meter (one cm.) from the adjacent right side wall. The window is opposite the wall containing the door. The door (two cms. by four cms.) is one-half meter (one cm.) from the adjacent lefthand wall when facing into the room.

A trainee is invited to letter the following caption for later pasting to the posterboard on which the models will be mounted:

A SCALE MODEL OF PART OF (ELT TRAINING BUILDING)

Explain to the trainees that they will be cutting along the outside lines of their 'plan' using exacto knives. Cutting will include the window and two edges of the door, leaving intact the hinged side.

STAGE VI

Trainees are now ready to cut out their models. The instructor should anticipate that some trainees may attempt to cut off the affixing tabs or the door (either completely or on the incorrect side). After cutting along their model outlines, trainees should proceed to bend along all pencil lines. These lines may now be erased. A piece of plastic laminate or a short length of broad transparent tape is now applied to the inside to serve as 'glass' in the window space. A glue stick is now generously applied to the tabs. Trainees may 'finger-hold' their assembled model until the sides being adhered have fully set. Trainees will be assigned an identifying number or letter for each of the rooms they have modeled. These will be ordered and attached to the poster board prepared for this purpose.

CONCLUSION

This scale-model project for intermediate English learners is now complete. The exercise, together with others of a similar kind, enables students to follow varied directions in English, in addition to gaining experience in dealing with three-dimensional ideas and becoming familiar with the notion of scale. Lastly, they have the opportunity of practicing a range of skills in preparation for those they will need in their work ahead.

REVIEWS

INSIDE ENGLISH

Author: Virginia French Allen
Publisher: Regents Publishing Company; 1983

Reviewer: Thomas W. Adams
University of Petroleum and Minerals
Dhahran, Saudi Arabia

Reading through this text brought back vivid memories of my days as a graduate student at Temple University in Philadelphia. Virginia French Allen was then ESOL coordinator as well as Professor of English as a Second Language. One of her most popular courses which always attracted both ESOL and normative English teachers was entitled 'Teaching Applications of the New Grammars', the syllabus for which served largely as the basis of this textbook. This course greatly helped all who enrolled in it to make some sense of the overwhelming and often conflicting data coming from our friends the linguists. Dr. Allen has an eviable knack for analyzing and interpreting theoretical research, weening from it practical applications for the classroom and then conveying it to us teachers in painless and straightforward ways. This was her approach as a lecturer and this is her approach as an author.

Inside English is a guide in helping us see English as a system, the concepts of which have been drawn from transformational-generative grammar, structural linguistics and sector analysis. Divided into twenty-two units, Allen's text has us take a look at some selected and troublesome areas of grammar through the use of a workbook format. Exercises are to be completed by the teacher(-trainee) -- and in some cases by our ESOL students -- in either independent study or in classroom use. In addition to offering an explanation for each grammatical structure, the text shows how to help students learn the structure and tells why it should be learned.

Among my favorite units is the fourteenth, addressing what A.S. Hornby called 'anomalous finites' and what in Robert L. Allen's Sector Analysis were called 'X-words'. This group of twenty words comprises the following: can, could, shall, should, will, would, may, might, must, have, has, had, am, is, are, was, were, do, does and did. Allen refers to them as Green words because they are the 'go' words of English. They 'go' when we change statements to Yes/No Questions, and they change basic sentences to many other types of sentences. Having used Allen's Green Words with my students over a number of years, I can attest to the usefulness of her approach, for it helps students better see the role of these slippery little words. It has the additional advantage of being relatively easy to teach.

V.F. Allen's text is filled with useful tips and techniques for both the novice and the seasoned teacher. Born from years of experience, it is indeed a welcome addition and worthwhile contribution to our field. Inside English will find a prominent place on the shelves of this reviewer's professional library.

BUSINESS WORLD

Authors: Roger Speegle and William B. Giesecke
Publisher: Oxford University Press; 1983

Reviewer: Robert Hilden
University of Petroleum and Minerals
Dhahran, Saudi Arabia

The authors of Business World have put together a commendable book. Its core consists of fifteen authentic articles taken from American business magazines and journals including the Harvard Business Review, Fortune, and Business Week. The authors claim to have designed the text for high-intermediate and advanced level students of English as a Second Language, although some of the material would be more than challenging even for the advanced student. The articles are grouped into six units comprising environmental issues, social issues, retailing, economics, energy and management.

The focus of this unified and carefully planned text is realistic communication within the context of general business concerns. Its primary strength lies in its integrated and practical learning activities. To illustrate the scope of these, we have chosen a chapter from the unit on economics entitled 'The Free Market Incentive: Self-interest vs. Greed'. The business vocabulary section here tests students with three activities: a cloze exercise in the form of a letter of transmittal, a fill-in-the-blank exercise and a simple matching task. In regard to vocabulary, we should mention that vocabulary is glossed in the margins of the reading passages, a useful technique that could be more often used in contemporary texts.

The subject of the structural review section in the chapter is 'Past but Continuing Action: Present Perfect Progressive'. Students are to choose the appropriate use of the tense in a summary of the reading passage and be able to justify their choice. Points covered in other structural review sections include tense, voice, indirect discourse and comparison, among others. The authors highlight particular grammatical constructions in the context of actual communicative 'events' to promote what they call 'automaticity'.

The business communication section discusses the use of bar, circle and line graphs with practice in making them. In other chapters, notetaking, summary writing, memo writing, giving oral presentations, writing letters of application, abstracts and resumes are treated. These are particularly practical; in a way, they comprise a succinct compendium of basic communications skills that could be used in any business skills course.

The final two developmental learning sections in each chapter are called Action and Reaction. According to authors Speegle and Giesecke, these activities really get students going in using creative communication. They

feel that since all of the activities up to this point reinforce the ideas, wordings and structures of the readings, these integrative tasks can be made highly successful. In our example chapter, the Action section sets up an informal class debate on the topic of Adam Smith's concept of self-interest while the Reaction section sets forth five challenging and controversial discussion questions. Again in these sections a variety of techniques is encouraged -- from panel discussions, debates and mock interviews to planning sessions and conference scenarios.

It is difficult to find fault with this handsome book, but in its choices of articles, Business World is a bit too bullish on the U.S.A. Except for some instances of comparisons between American and Japanese business practices in 'The Battle for Quality Begins', and some references to "your country..." in the developmental learning sections, the articles remain parochially American. The reason for this deficiency might stem from the idea that the book is designed for second language users who plan to remain and work in the U.S.A. or whose primary interest lies in American opinions, attitudes and concerns. However, in a world of multinational involvements, one might expect the authors of such a sophisticated ESP text to be a bit more cosmopolitan in their choice of topics. For example, the inclusion of an article on Islamic Banking -- many have appeared recently -- would be valuable subject matter for the student able to benefit from this text. The authors' successful 'global' approach could have been enhanced had they paid more attention to global issues.

ELC OCCASIONAL PAPERS, NUMBER 1

Editors: Judith Wilson and Piers Horey
Publisher: King Abdulaziz University Press; 1983

by Stan Gentry
University of Petroleum and Minerals
Dhahran, Saudi Arabia

From time to time, the Reviews Department of TEAM receives publications which are not particularly suited for an ordinary 'review' evaluation, but which are of wide interest to those of us working in the EFL profession. Late last spring, too late for inclusion in our Summer issue, this department received a copy of such a publication from the College of Engineering at King Abdulaziz University in Jeddah (Saudi Arabia). This booklet, compiled for limited non-commercial use, is a collection of nine papers written between 1979 and 1982 by instructors at that Centre.

The scope of the papers ranges from those concerned with (1) theoretical methodology and (2) task-based learning in actual classroom practice -- through (3) techniques for the development of self-awareness and cohesion in the extended writing of medical students and (4) problems encountered by Arabic-speaking students who are beginning to read English texts -- to (5) the testing of oral interaction skills and (6) the rationale and methodology of a course in reading for specific purposes. A complete list of the nine papers with their authors is as follows:

1. Integrating Groupwork with Medics Material (Anne Collins)
2. Testing Oral Interaction Between Bands 3-5 (Peter Corbett)
3. Writing Practice from Sentence to Essay Level (Peter Hill)
4. Task-based English Language Learning: Principles and Practice (Piers Horey)
5. Reading in English: Some Early Problems Faced by Arabic Speakers (Janet King)
6. Reading for Specific Purposes (Hassan Mustapha, Pieter Nelson and Jeffery Thomas)
7. Towards a Theory of LSP methodology (Martin K. Phillips)
8. Tasks and Teaching: An ELC Lesson (Marie-Helene Payne)
9. Towards a Multi-skill Self-access Centre (Glynis Saunders)

In an introduction to the booklet, D.P.L. Harper, the Director of King Abdulaziz University's English Language Centre, states that these papers "are now being published mainly for internal ELC purposes, but also with the hope that some of them may be of wider interest to those in the EFL profession." This booklet should indeed be of great interest to all EFL teachers, not only here in the Middle East but throughout the world. TEAM congratulates the ELC at King Abdulaziz University on the publication of this most valuable and enlightening addition to our profession and looks forward to the next issue in the series.

ELC NEWS ITEMS

With the arrival of September, the ELC welcomed more than 1,000 new students to the Orientation English Program and sixteen new faculty members.

Dave M. Kerswell has done TEFL work for the British Council and the Overseas Development Administration in Malawi, Iran, Malaysia and the South Pacific. He joins us in Dhahran having come from Bournemouth, U.K. where he was head of the Anglo-Continental Vocation Centre.

Marvin L. Kierstead comes to UPM from the International Airports Project in Jeddah. Prior affiliations include Ball State, Michigan, and Georgetown Universities in the USA. Marvin has led several workshops at TESOL Conferences.

Stephen J. Lehrer moved to Saudi Arabia from California where he was an ESL Instructor at the Berkeley Adult School. Steven's other experience includes two years of TEFL work in Japan.

Michael Leigh-Hunt has had a varied and extensive academic and literary career. Since turning to a full-time interest in ESL/EFL, he has had affiliations with London University and Trinity College and has taught in Malta, Morocco and Oman. He comes to UPM from a position teaching Arabic speaking students at Eaton Hall International in England.

Jim Leone holds degrees from Wayne State and Indiana Universities. Just prior to joining the ELC faculty, Jim taught for three years in the Intensive English Program at Indiana. His TEFL experience also includes two years with the Peace Corps in the West African republic of Upper Volta.

Scott D. Lewis, whose experience includes editorial work, has most recently been teaching at the Center for English as a Second Language (CESL) while engaged in postgraduate study at Southern Illinois University at Carbondale.

David Lillystone, after teaching EFL in Athens, pursued a postgraduate degree in Linguistics at Manchester University in England, where he has come from to join the ELC faculty.

Rory McGreal joins the UPM faculty from Concordia University in Montreal where he was a Lecturer in TEFL and head of the listening program. Prior to that, Rory was chairman of the ESL section of the National Youth Service of the Republic of Seychelles.

Richard Paul spent three years teaching EFL with the Peace Corps in the Ivory Coast before attending New York University to earn an MA in TEFL. Just prior to coming to Saudi Arabia, Richard was associated with the L.I.F.E. Institute of Fairleigh Dickinson University. Richard's special interests include testing.

Richard Pond has just moved down the Gulf coast from Jubail, Saudi Arabia where he was an EFL instructor for the Jubail Human Resources Development Institute.

George Roberts comes to UPM from the New Culture Institute in Goiania, Brazil. Before that he was affiliated with SYSTRAN, Inc. in Beaumont, Texas. George holds a postgraduate degree from Portland State University in Oregon. His previous experience includes five years at the American Language Institute in Lisbon.

Michael E. Kudder returns to Saudi Arabia to become a faculty member at UPM, having taught for two years at King Faisal University's Hofuf campus. In the interval he has been engaged in study at the University of Perugia in Italy. Previous TEFL experience includes teaching for the Peace Corps in Morocco and Tunisia.

Michael Rudy recently completed an MA in TESOL at New York University. His EFL experience includes work in the Peace Corps and in Korea, Iran and most recently Saudi Arabia where he taught for the Royal Navy project in Dammam.

Tom Speer has taught ESL at both San Francisco and Fresno State Universities in California. His ESL experience in the USA also includes work with refugees and in adult schools. Tom has taught in Saudi Arabia at both the Dammam and Hofuf campuses of King Faisal University.

Andreas Svrakov comes to UPM from Birzeit University in the West Bank. Previous affiliations include the Fundacion Ponce de Leon in Madrid and the State University of New York at Albany and Oneonta.

Stephen Thompson arrives at UPM from England where he just completed an MA in Applied Linguistics at the University of Reading. This is a return to the Gulf as Stephen was for three years a teacher trainer for the English Language Development Centre of the Qatari Ministry of Education in Doha.

ANNOUNCEMENTS

CALL FOR PAPERS Fourth Annual Conference on Languages for Business and the Professions to be held 2-4 May 1985. Write: Conference Chair, Department of Foreign Languages; 219 New Alexander Building; Eastern Michigan University; Ypsilanti, MI 48197 U.S.A.

REPORT ON 'ESP IN THE ARAB WORLD' CONFERENCE Middle East readers interested in obtaining a copy of the proceedings of this conference held August 1983 at the University of Aston, Birmingham and organised by John Swales, may do so by writing to: Dr. Mohammed A. Mulla, Preparatory Year Programs; University of Petroleum and Minerals; Dhahran, Saudi Arabia. A cheque for six pounds fifty (British Sterling) to the order of John Swales is needed to defray costs.

CULTURAL KEY EXPERIENCES Call for cross-cultural experiences. Dr. Udo U.H. Jung (University of Marburg; Markt 23, D-3550; Federal Republic of Germany) is collecting descriptions and interpretations of insightful cross-cultural anecdotes. If interested in contributing, please include: date and location of the event; number of persons involved; those persons' sex, age and status relative to each other; languages/dialects involved. Indicate the degree of mastery you have of the languages involved, how this could have influenced the events, and what other languages you speak. Type in English, German or French. Signed consent for story to be published is needed.

REQUESTS FOR MANUSCRIPTS The American Council of Teachers of Foreign Languages sponsors a Materials Center which welcomes original manuscripts and/or teacher oriented materials for publication and distribution to language educators. Topics considered: Professional Development; Student Materials; Promoting Foreign Language Study; Bilingual Education; Computer Assisted Instruction; Culture; ESOL; Exchange Programs; Individualized Instruction. Submit the original manuscript and two copies to: Dorothy Gabel Liebowitz, editor; ACTFL Materials Center; 1930 Laurel Avenue; Hanover Park, IL 60103; U.S.A.

18TH TESOL CONVENTION IN HOUSTON Many papers delivered at this conference have been taped and are available on audiocassette. For a listing, write to: Audio Transcripts Ltd.; 610 Madison Street; Alexandria, Virginia 22314; U.S.A.

CAMBRIDGE APPLIED LINGUISTICS SERIES Cambridge University Press has recently established a new series under the editorship of Michael A. Long and Jack C. Richards. This series will focus on second language education. Contact the editors with a brief proposal which should include a suggested table of contents and a sample chapter or related journal publication by you. Write: Drs. Michael Long and Jack C. Richards; Dept. of ESOL; Moore Hall; University of Hawaii at Manoa; 1890 East-West Road; Honolulu, Hawaii 96822; USA.

10TH ANNUAL INTERNATIONAL CONFERENCE ON LANGUAGE TEACHING AND LEARNING at Tokai University Yoyogi Campus in Tokyo, Japan from November 23-25, 1984. Sponsored by the Japan Association of Language Teachers, an affiliate of TESOL.

INTERNATIONAL PUBLISHERS REPRESENTATIVES recently moved to Cyprus: 16 Kyriakos Matsis Ave.; Ay. Omoloyites; P.O. Box 5731; Nicosia.

ROBERT G. BANDER

1924-1984

Robert Bander enjoyed a rich and varied life as a professor, an editor, and an author of ESL texts. Between studying at Harvard and Stanford Universities (where he received his doctorate), he became a fighter pilot with the U.S. Air Force during World War II, eventually holding the rank of Major in the Reserves. Dr. Bander began his long career in TEFL when he was awarded a Fulbright Fellowship at the University of Pisa, Italy. He later was appointed director of the Binational Center in Bangkok, Thailand and then chair of the English Department at the University of Petroleum and Minerals (1966-67). Other positions included professorships at the University of Southern California, the University of Hawaii and World Campus Afloat. His editing career spanned six years with Sunset Books and with Pittman Learning, Inc. It is as a prolific author of composition books, however, that he is best known. His classic 1971 text for advanced students, American English Rhetoric was followed by the successful From Sentence to Paragraph (1981) and then by Sentence Making (1982). Most recent is his minimal-competency text Basics and Beyond. Returning to Saudi Arabia from 1981 to 1984, he served on the faculty of UPM and continued to author materials until his death. Countless students and teachers in all parts of the world have benefited from Robert Bander's work. Through them, he will long be remembered and appreciated.

الفريق Team

journal of the
English Language Center



University of Petroleum and Minerals
Dhahran, Saudi Arabia

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FROM THE EDITOR

From time to time, we receive reports of research which we think would be of interest to our readers but which, for space or other editorial considerations, it isn't possible to publish in full. Consequently, members of our editorial staff have undertaken to summarize findings to include in our new RESEARCH SUMMARIES section. In this number we include two such descriptions: ESL Spelling Errors and Problems Faced by Language Teachers in Turkey. Our staff will continue to provide summaries of research reports which interest us, and readers are invited to submit summaries themselves when it isn't possible or convenient to submit feature length articles.

Writing in our lead article, Fredricka Stoller of the University of Southern California first examines the merits of using a reading lab as an instrument for developing reading skills and strategies, and then describes the program used by her own students.

Writing from Sao Paulo, Brazil, Michael R. Scott of the Pontifica Universidade Catolica argues for the use of individualized instruction. Beginning with an identification of those circumstances where a need for self-access might exist, he then explores the principles and goals of such an approach.

Scott D. Lewis of our English Language Center has contributed an article examining certain common errors made by Arabic-speaking students in English. This study nicely complements the Hutchinson article published in our last issue.

Finally from the University of Puerto Rico comes an article first presented at the 18th Annual TESOL Convention. Fayer and Krasinski teamed up to assess and interpret their students' needs and motivation.

The next issue will mark ten years of continuous publication for us. We plan to include a special article by Dan Deegan tracing TEAM's history, with a particular focus on the first five years. Additionally, Bob Hilden is busy compiling a ten-year index of contributions. The lead article, from Robert Henderson of the University of Pittsburgh, discusses the acquisition of adequate reading skills for Arabic-speaking students.

DESIGNING AN EFFECTIVE READING LAB¹

Fredricka Stoller
University of Southern California
Los Angeles, California

INTRODUCTION

Recent academic survey research (Ostler, 1980; Johns, 1981; Robertson, 1983) indicates that both ESL students and university professors consider reading to be an important, if not the most important, skill needed for academic success. In an academic environment, no matter the discipline, all students, at one point in their education, will inevitably have heavy reading loads and a pressing need to develop efficient reading skills and strategies. Recognizing the critical importance of reading as a skill in and of itself, it is clear that reading must be addressed directly in any academically oriented ESL curriculum.

A reading lab, an independent reading course, can easily be designed to meet these needs of our students. Giving reading the focused attention that it deserves, a Reading Lab can provide an ideal setting for students to practice reading as well as receive reading instruction. Here teachers have an open forum to promote the importance of reading as one of the keys to academic success. Teachers can provide students with a variety of well-defined activities for practice and can discuss and later remind students of what they should do to become efficient readers. Such a focused approach to reading permits students to monitor their reading progress easily, which, in turn, helps them build their confidence, another key to academic success. This confidence follows from the combination of understanding the need to read and seeing visible improvement through practice by the use of progress charts and graphs.

THE PROTOTYPE READING LAB

My primary concern here is to present a prototype Reading Lab designed for low-intermediate students (400-450 TOEFL), a design which is potentially useful in any language program and at any language proficiency level.² This should by no means be interpreted as a fixed restriction on a prototype reading lab program. The prototype discussed here can easily be adjusted to meet the needs of students at both lower and higher proficiency levels.

The Reading Lab can be divided into two principal parts, in-class activities and out-of-class activities. The former can be further divided into teacher-guided and individualized activities (see Figure 1 in Appendix A).

The set of activities listed in Figure 1 introduces many reading skills that are considered necessary for effective reading. The skills and corresponding goals for each activity are summarized in Figure 2 of Appendix A.

DISCUSSION OF THE PROTOTYPE READING LAB COMPONENTS

The core of this article will describe the Reading Lab components listed in Figure 1, including a rationale for the activities, available materials, actual procedures and sequencing. Attention will also be given to the physical setup of the Lab.

RAPID WORD AND PHRASE RECOGNITION EXERCISES

Rapid word and phrase recognition exercises are the first of the teacher-guided activities to be introduced to the students in the Reading Lab. Recent reading research has indicated the importance of accurate and rapid word recognition. Much research indicates that "comprehension defects can at least in part be traced to deficiencies within the word recognition process" (Chabot, et al., 1984: 148). Many researchers actually claim that accurate and rapid, ideally automatic, recognition skills distinguish skilled from less skilled readers (Mitchell, 1982; Lesgold and Perfetti, 1981; Perfetti and Roth, 1981; Chabot, et al., 1984; Stoller, 1984; and Eskey and Grabe, 1984). The exercises used in the Reading Lab are intended to help students learn to react rapidly and accurately to the appearance of English words and then English phrases. From these activities, students develop a sense of the visual image of the key words or phrases.

These exercises also serve as a means for introducing the importance of rate, a notion that will be reinforced continuously throughout the Reading Lab program. Since reading at a faster rate improves comprehension (Smith, 1973, 1982), the Reading Lab can furnish exercises to improve rate on a continual basis, beginning with recognition exercises, followed later in the course with other types of rate improvement exercises. These recognition exercises are not to be mistaken as actual 'reading tasks', nor are they to be confused with vocabulary enrichment exercises. They are simply recognition exercises, sometimes referred to as perception or identification exercises, one of the first crucial steps in a reading skills development program.

The word recognition exercises, later followed by the phrase recognition exercises, should be introduced and initiated early in the semester, and should continue throughout much of the Reading Lab course. There are a variety of recognition exercises that can be used in the Reading Lab. Some useful texts for this purpose are Adams (1969, 1980, 1981), Miller, Dye, Flood Ladd (1976), Miller and Steeber (1979), Miller, Steeber, Dye and Flood Ladd (1979), Miller, Steeber and Flood Ladd (1979), Harris (1966), and Yorkey (1970, 1983). (Ideal circumstances would probably dictate the use of individual teacher generated exercises incorporating words or phrases to be encountered by the students in their actual reading passages. These exercises could easily be modeled after the exercises in the texts mentioned above.) The word recognition exercises found in these texts vary only slightly and all

strive to accomplish the same goals. Below is an abbreviated sample of a rapid word recognition exercise:

key word

1. class	close	cloze	class	clash	crash
2. sold	told	bold	mold	sold	cold
3. book	bike	book	bake	beak	boot
4. worst	watch	waste	wasp	washed	worst
5. read	real	red	rate	read	raid

This exercise, similar to those found in the texts mentioned above, runs from left to right, getting the students used to sweeping their eyes across the page in that direction. The students are directed to look at the key word, then sweep their eyes to the right until they spot the word. The moment they see the word, they should mark it and continue immediately on to the next line. Instructors should encourage the students to locate the word as quickly as possible but also to strive for accuracy. Students should time themselves and record their time.⁴ The exercises should also be corrected, either as a class, in small groups or individually, and the results should be recorded by the individual students.

Ideally, three recognition exercises should be done consecutively. The first can be considered a warm-up exercise; the students strive to proceed faster and more accurately with the last two. No more than ten to fifteen minutes should be devoted to these exercises in any given Lab period. If neither the students nor instructor confuse these exercises with vocabulary expansion exercises, the three exercises can be done in a short amount of time and prove to be both effective and enjoyable. With practice and encouragement and with constant record keeping, students will quickly notice improvement in both their recognition rate and accuracy. As they progress through the exercises, their perception will become surer and their choices more accurate. The entire process builds confidence as well.

The texts mentioned above also have a wide variety of phrase recognition exercises. Even though they vary in format, the goals are identical. In all the exercises the students are asked to focus on the visual image of the phrase as a whole rather than the individual words. This progression from word recognition to phrase recognition, in theory, also bridges the gap between reading word by word and reading in phrase groups.

READING-IN-PHRASES

Once the students understand the importance and purpose of the recognition exercises and work through a number of them, building their recognition rate and accuracy, reading-in-phrases exercises are introduced. The recognition exercises and reading-in-phrases are not introduced simultaneously, as the latter are more effective if preceded by recognition work. The reading-in-phrases exercises add a comprehension variable, focusing on the importance of reading in meaningful phrase units. These exercises (e.g., Yorkey, 1970, 1982) help students recognize clues which signal phrases, which, in turn, help them read in meaningful units. The exercises also begin to break the students of the habit of reading word by word, which positively affects their reading rate and comprehension. (For a more detailed discussion, see Mahon, forthcoming).

RATE BUILDERS

The recognition exercises and the reading-in-phrases exercises logically lead to the rate builder component of the Reading Lab. Materials such as the SRA Multi-Read II Rate Builders have proven effective for this component. With the Rate Builders, the students strive to coordinate and improve their reading rate and comprehension with authentic reading passages. There are ten rate builders in the SRA package, a class set of each, which become progressively longer and more difficult, while the rate imposed on the reading passages remains constant. Each rate builder consists of a very short text, essentially factual and easily understood. The text is followed by five straightforward comprehension questions. The students are instructed to read the text and answer the five questions within three minutes. (This time limit can be adjusted to meet the needs and level of a particular class, keeping in mind that the time imposed on the rate builder series should be challenging but not frustrating for the students.) As the students progress through the ten rate builders, their rate improves owing to the added length of the text and the constant rate. While working through the series, the questions which follow the text oblige the students to scan the text, another valuable skill reinforced in a natural way.

Instructors deciding to put together their own set of rate builders should keep in mind that the set of readings should get progressively longer, not necessarily more difficult. However, textbooks that have a series of readings which become progressively longer and slightly more difficult could be used easily for this purpose.

PACED/TIMED READINGS WITH SKIMMING AND SCANNING EXERCISES

The recognition exercises, the reading-in-phrases exercises and the rate builders prepare the students to meet the challenge of the paced reading exercises. The paced readings add a number of new dimensions to the Reading Lab exercises in that they are longer and more complex than the rate builders. In addition, the questions which follow the passages are more numerous and challenging. Unlike the rate builder series, which lengthens each consecutive passage yet maintains a given reading rate, the paced reading series has passages of equal length, with progressively faster reading rates. The first three books of the ten book series by Spargo and Willinston, entitled Timed Readings: Fifty 400-Word Passages with Questions for Building Reading Speed, have proven useful for this particular purpose. The passages in these books, all four hundred words in length, are marked with dots at every one hundred words to facilitate pacing. The pace is controlled by the teacher who signals an agreed-upon pace at given intervals by lightly tapping the table. Upon hearing the signal, students should have read the one hundred words between the dots. These students who find themselves reading more slowly jump ahead and attempt to read the next one hundred words in the signaled time period; those students who find themselves reading faster slow down and try to read the next section more carefully. For example, reading at one hundred words per minute (wpm), the teacher will signal the students every sixty seconds. Within four minutes, students will have finished the passage. Using these passages in this manner, students learn to conceptualize a reading

pace by reading at a specific rate between the dots. With continual practice, the teacher is able to set a faster pace and students gradually build up their reading rate which, in turn, improves their comprehension.

Two consecutive paced readings should be given at the beginning of the paced reading component. Towards the end of the program, the instructor can use the same materials to pair one paced reading with a timed reading. After reading the paced exercise at an imposed rate, the students read a new passage of the same length without the imposed rate. The students' goal should be to read the new passage at the same rate as their paced reading, if not faster, maintaining or bettering the same degree of comprehension. This reading will be timed on an individual basis and the results recorded. These recorded times are an indication of a student's actual reading rate.⁵ With encouragement and diligence, students show a marked improvement over the course of a semester. Even though the passages are short in comparison to the students' future reading assignments, in either ESL or other academic courses, successful rate development in such exercises gives students the confidence for reading longer passages.

The paced and timed reading components of the Reading Lab prove to be most effective if the actual reading exercises are preceded by pre-reading activities, led by the instructor. Soliciting an oral or written response, the teacher can: 1) ask students to focus on the title and any illustrations that may accompany the text; 2) ask students to skim the entire passage quickly for the main idea, which is particularly important if the title is not straightforward and/or if there are no illustrations; 3) ask students to scan the passage for specific details considered crucial for overall comprehension; 4) introduce 'loaded' cultural presuppositions which would otherwise mislead or confuse students, or perhaps go unnoticed.

IN-CLASS INDIVIDUALIZED ACTIVITIES

Having part of the Reading Lab devoted to individualized activities is crucial. In a class made up of students whose reading abilities inevitably vary, it is imperative to have materials and activities that allow students to begin at their own level and proceed at their own rate (Coady, 1979). With individualized materials, students are not forced into a rhythm artificially imposed on an entire class. The students can control their own pace. In addition, allowing students to choose their own reading materials and/or texts is psychologically satisfying. Most importantly, students need to have time to sit quietly and read materials without interruption. In the long run, students learn to read by reading (Eskey, 1983).

A number of commercial packages designed for individualized reading work are available. Some of these programmed reading materials are listed in Appendix B. When choosing a reading package for a Reading Lab program, it is important to examine the materials carefully, looking for the following features. Ideally an individualized reading program: 1) accommodates a wide range of student reading levels; 2) has a large variety of reading selections at each reading level, including non-fiction readings; 3) has a selection of high interest topics that are appropriate for ESL students, that is, topics

that are not too culturally specific or biased; 4) allows for a systematic progression from one level to another; 5) permits students to progress at their own pace; 6) includes a self-correction system; 7) includes charts and graphs for easy record keeping; 8) includes a placement test for accurate level assignment; and 9) includes exercises that require students to practice a variety of reading skills and strategies.

OUT-OF-CLASS ACTIVITIES: INDIVIDUALIZED OUTSIDE READING

The individualized outside reading program encourages independent reading and promotes reading for enjoyment. To facilitate such a program, it is important to have a Reading Lab library, comprising a variety of ESL readers, grouped according to level of difficulty. Readers published by Collier Macmillan, Collins, Heinemann Educational Books, Longman, Newbury House, Oxford University Press and Regents, to name a few, are extremely useful for this purpose. With a large selection of fiction and non-fiction readers on the library shelves, students find themselves skimming the back covers in order to find a book that interests them (Coady, 1979; Carrell and Eisterhold, 1983). Selecting their own reading materials is something that students enjoy. Students should check out a minimum of one reader per week. The checkout procedure is similar to public library checkout procedure, each book having a check-out card. Over the course of the semester, this individualized outside reading builds confidence and personal satisfaction.

As with other Reading Lab components, it is necessary for students to keep a record of their weekly outside readings. One option is for the students to keep a record in the form of an informal, brief written book report. It is important to remember, however, that the actual written work should not be given too much weight; if the students' written performance is emphasized too much, the fear of the book report will undermine the reading focus of the activity.

SEQUENCING OF READING LAB COMPONENTS

All the Reading Lab components discussed in this chapter are introduced to the students in a specific order. This sequencing should be considered of primary importance, for without it, the Reading Lab would lose its effectiveness. In general, the sequencing permits students to develop and improve their reading skills gradually, easing the students into an effective reading program, continually building their confidence and positive outlook towards reading. The sequencing of the Reading Lab components is summarized in Figure 3 of Appendix A.

The most delicate sequencing occurs with the in-class teacher-guided activities. Rarely is more than one activity introduced at a time, as each activity introduces a new skill and/or aspect of reading. It is important that the students understand the need for each skill and become comfortable practicing it before being introduced to a new activity. These teacher-guided activities lead the students from simple word perception to reading a complete passage at reasonable rate with good comprehension. One cannot expect the students to be competent at both of these extremes simultaneously at the beginning of the Reading Lab program. For that very reason, the Reading Lab activities are sequenced to build upon and reinforce one another.

PHYSICAL SETUP OF THE READING LAB

For the Reading Lab to function smoothly, the physical setup of the Lab should be taken into consideration. Ideally, the Reading Lab should be situated in a room of its own. A traditional classroom, with immobile desk/chairs is not ideal, for it is not at all conducive to reading. Ideally, the Reading Lab should have movable chairs with plenty of room to spread out the Reading Lab materials. It should also have adequate light for reading. Multiple book shelves are necessary to house the Reading Lab library, and there should be additional space for the other Reading Lab materials, including the programmed materials and class sets of books. A file cabinet is convenient for storing additional materials such as worksheets, graphs, charts and outside reading report forms. Individual student folders, used to keep an organized set of progress charts, graphs, and exercise worksheets, can be kept in the file cabinet as well.

CONCLUSION

The importance of reading in today's academic world and the close relationship between academic success and efficient reading support the need for a focused reading skills development program for ESL/EFL students. The Reading Lab represents a feasible and effective approach to a focused reading skills development program. The Reading Lab, at any or all levels of English instruction, allows reading to be addressed directly, permitting students to practice reading as well as receive instruction in skills which aid the reading process. The Reading Lab is flexible enough to accommodate and address the specific needs of students at all levels. The prototype Reading Lab discussed here can be adjusted easily to meet the needs of students at different proficiency levels. The combination of teacher-guided activities and individualized activities, both in the Lab and at home, helps students develop a positive attitude towards reading in addition to a more efficient and effective reading ability.

ENDNOTES

1. This is an excerpt of a chapter forthcoming in Fraida Dubin, David E. Eskey, and William Grabe, eds. Teaching Second Language Reading for Academic Purposes. Reading, Mass.: Addison-Wesley Publishers.

2. For purposes of illustration, I will present a typical Reading Lab program that follows the semester and program constraints at the American Language Institute (ALI) at the University of Southern California, Los Angeles. The low intermediate students at the ALI (ALI level 200) have twenty-eight hours of ESL instruction per week, during a fifteen week semester. Four of these hours are devoted to the Reading Lab, which meets twice a week, in two-hour blocks. Another six hours are devoted to a Reading/Writing class. These two classes, the Reading Lab and the Reading/Writing class, are designed to complement and reinforce one another.

3. From the activities listed in Figure 1, one might conclude that only a portion of the Reading Lab activities requires the presence of an instructor. However, the instructor is an indispensable part of the Reading Lab and plays an integral role in all activities. The instructor should be present at all times, whether the students are working on teacher-guided activities or individualized activities. It is important that the instructor be accessible and able to monitor student progress, providing feedback and encouragement at the appropriate time (Coady, 1979; Eskey, 1979). Yet, the teacher should never be on "center stage" (Stevick 1980, 1982 discusses this more fully). That is, the instructor cannot play a traditionally active role while students are reading. If the instructor does, the reading becomes some other task (Chastain, 1976; Gaskill, 1979).

4. For greatest efficiency, the teacher can direct students to begin their recognition exercises at exactly the same time, ideally referring to a large classroom clock. If the teacher starts everyone off when the secondhand is on the '12', students can look up at the clock as they finish and easily calculate their time. If the class is small, students can indicate they are done by quietly saying "done" and the teacher can read off individual times.

5. The results of timed readings should not be construed as a student's actual reading rate for most materials of an extended length. It does, however, represent a real change in a student's ability to read shorter texts and, therefore, represents a true improvement.

APPENDIX A

FIGURE 1

Low-Intermediate Reading Lab

<u>In-class Activities</u>		<u>Out-of-class Activities</u>
<u>Teacher-guided</u>	<u>Individualized</u>	<u>Outside Reading</u>
Rapid Word Recognition	Vocabulary from Context	ESL Readers from the Reading Lab library
Rapid Phrase Recognition	Multi-Skills Reading Package	
Reading in Phrases		
Rate Builders		
Paced Reading		
Skimming		
Scanning		
Timed Reading		

FIGURE 2

The Principal Goals of the Reading Lab Activities

<u>Skills/Goals</u>	<u>Reading Lab Activities</u>										
	1*	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11
Simple word perception	X										
Simple phrase perception		X									
Reading in meaningful units		X	X								
Recognition of clues which signal phrases		X	X								
Breaking habit of reading word by word		X	X	X	X	X	X	X		X	X
Rate Improvement	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X		X	X
Comprehension Improvement			X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X
Meaning of vocabulary from context				X	X	X			X	X	X
Skimming				X	X	X	X	X		X	
Scanning				X	X	X	X		X	X	
Conceptualization of reading rate					X						
Making inferences					X	X				X	
Recollection of facts and ideas				X	X	X				X	
Breaking dependency on the dictionary				X	X	X	X		X	X	X
Identifying main ideas, important information/words				X	X	X	X			X	
Identifying specific information				X	X	X		X		X	
Critical reading					X	X				X	
Independent reading											X
Confidence building	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X

* The following list identifies the eleven columns:

1. Rapid Word Recognition
2. Rapid Phrase Recognition
3. Reading in Phrases
4. Rate Builders
5. Paced Readings
6. Timed Readings
7. Skimming
8. Scanning
9. Vocabulary from Context
10. Multi-skills Readings
11. Outside Reading

FIGURE 3

Sequencing of Reading Lab Activities

In-Class Teacher-Guided Activities

Week:	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15
Word Recognition		X	X	X	X			X	X	(X)	(X)	(X)			
Phrase Recognition				X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X			
Reading In Phrases						X	X	X							
Rate Builders							X	X	X						
Paced Reading									X	X	X	X	(X)	(X)	
Skimming									X	X	X	X	X	X	
Scanning									X	X	X	X	X	X	
Timed Reading												X	X	X	

In-Class Individualized Activities

Vocabulary From Context	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X
Multi-Skills Reading	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X

o Week 1: Placement test to determine each student's level.

* Week 15: Option to re-administer placement test to see student's progress.

Out-of-Class Reading Activities

	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	
--	---	---	---	---	---	---	---	---	---	---	---	---	---	---	--

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SELF-ACCESS IN ESP

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The appointment diary read: '25 year-olds. Central District'.

Dental Surgeon Juliet S. Mean looked up from her notes. Her glance swept over the thirty-two patients, each reclining in the standard position in the regulation-issue chair. The white plastic bibs were all in place. As she issued the standard smile, her highly regular teeth glinted fluoride white.

"Right, everybody," she began. "First things first -- anaesthetic."

With the dexterity born of long practice she injected each one with the exact dose, in the right lateral incisor area. While waiting for the anaesthetic to take effect, she read a short extract from the 'Guide for Group Dental Treatment' (a rather dog-eared 1984 edition) to the expectant patients.

"It is well known," she read, "that the periodontal abscess -- also known as the lateral or parietal abscess -- is a localized purulent inflammation on the periodontal tissues." ('Blind 'em with science,' she thought. 'It always works.')

"Extensive studies have shown that the twenty-five year-old adult, after some twenty-three years of high sugar consumption, is prone to incipient development of up to two periodontal abscesses, located generally in the right lateral incisor area. For this reason we shall now proceed to extract the teeth in this region, which statistics prove to be subject to such a painful condition."

As she spoke, she bent over the patient in the front row.

It was only when the bell rang, signalling the end of Group Treatment, that she noticed that three of her patients were Remedials. She groaned as she realized that the teeth she had extracted from them were the false teeth she herself had fitted the previous year when they had been in last year's Group...

We are fortunate that Group Treatment does not really exist in our world. At least not in the world of dentistry, accountancy, medicine, plumbing, dressmaking. But would the science-fiction be science-fiction if Juliet S. Mean had been an English teacher?

This paper is about ways of trying to bring ESP teaching nearer to standard dental practice: giving individual treatment where and when needed.

The term 'self-access' covers a number of individualized approaches in teaching. In this paper I shall begin with some common problems which have arisen from the historical fact that unlike dentists ESP teachers have been expected to deal with whole groups at the same time. This will be followed by a set of principles which underpin self-access courses and considerations as to how a self-access ESP course can be set up.

PROBLEMS

There seem to be three main classes of problems which arise from traditional classroom teaching ('lockstep' as it has been called): problems which relate to the students, problems in the materials, and problems from the teacher's role.

The first relates to the obvious fact that no two individuals are exactly alike. Teachers always complain that classes are heterogeneous and often suggest that the solution is to divide pupils into streams -- advanced, intermediate, false beginners, beginners, or whatever. The entrance or placement test is designed to do just that. But however many heads you cut off, the Hydra always seems to grow more. In the same way, ESP teachers have in the past argued that engineering students should study engineering texts, hoping that that would solve the subject specialism problem, only to discover that the electrical engineers didn't like the electronic engineering texts, and so on. The real reason is simple: even if you could guarantee to get a class of students who were all at exactly the same level (say they had all scored exactly 72% on your placement test), this seeming homogeneity would certainly conceal a number of divergences. Some factors producing such divergences are:

- speed of learning and IQ
- knowledge:
 - strategies
 - grammar
 - functions
 - vocabulary
- skill at implementing knowledge
- attitude and motivation

It is obvious that each student will differ from her or his classmates in at least these regards, so that even if all students scored 72% in your placement test, they could not all score, say, 92% in your achievement or progress tests as the semester unfolds.

I am not suggesting that streaming is a bad policy, but that it might be better to stop trying to cut off the Hydra's heads and learn to live with it. Could the Hydra be a chimera?

The second class of problems relates to the materials, the teacher's 'tools of the trade'. Teachers are generally dissatisfied with the textbooks available to them. The methodology is inadequate in one way or another, the approach does not take their particular 'realidade' into account, the exercises are at the wrong level, etc. A common solution is to begin to write one's own materials. An eager start is made, colleagues are coopted, and the great materials production machine swings into action. Unless, of course, sand gets into the works: disagreement in the team, not enough time, no support from the administration, etc. Still, new materials do get produced, and all seems well, until these same teachers become frustrated with their own materials. Somehow the results are never quite as good as one had hoped ... and the true artist is never satisfied with his creation.

Few text-topics, for example, will please everyone, and the same is bound to apply to exercises and exercise-types. As Abraham Lincoln didn't quite put it: You can please all the people some of the time, and some of the people all of the time, but you cannot please all the people all the time.

I am suggesting that much of our enthusiasm for the new methodologies and more relevant materials, although generally laudable, may lead us astray, so that some of the well-known tendency to 'join the bandwagon' of novelty may be the product of our reluctance to stand back to reconsider basic aspects of our teaching situation -- in particular the student variation outlined above.

The third aspect also derives from our usual 'lockstep' approach, in which all students are improbably expected to do the same thing at the same time, extracting an equivalent amount of benefit from it. This aspect is the teacher's role.

All teachers know, of course, that their students are quite different from each other. But the usual situation, in which the teacher is a kind of impresario controlling events, by putting responsibility for the class on the teacher's shoulders, tends to create a paradox: the class is united in contradistinction to the teacher, and at the same time each member of the class is set in competition with every other member of the class. The results are Darwinian. Let me make this a little clearer. In the normal teaching situation the teacher is expected to be 'in charge', responsible for the fifty minutes of class time. If there is an awkward silence, it is presumably because the teacher has not prepared the class properly. If students fail, the teacher will be thought to be a poor teacher. The teachers' natural response to this role is to talk a great deal, and then, when results are disappointing, to put the blame on the size of the class, on their colleagues' poor teaching, on the secondary school system, on student irresponsibility, laziness or stupidity, on mass education, or on the textbook.

Incidentally, the testing situation is such that most students are necessarily less than good or excellent in that most tests are norm-referenced in order to produce a range of grades. The average student is, by definition, less than excellent. Some students are bound to 'fail'. The paradox is epitomized by the teacher building into multiple-choice tests 'distractors' whose sole purpose is to trap the unwary in order to sort the sheep from the goats.

In part, this rather depressing scenario is a result of the standard role allotted to teachers and to students. I do not suggest that all these problems can be abolished 'at a stroke' by the immediate mass adoption of self-access techniques, but instead that ways must be sought of placing the responsibility for learning where it really belongs: on the students' shoulders; self-access teaching may help to do this in some ways. The ideal must surely be to make the student responsible for learning, the objective being to reach a certain level of mastery by the end of the semester. The teacher steps away from the foreground and can then use time more usefully helping those who need it, so that all who wish to may reach mastery in competition not with each other but with the subject matter. Self-access teaching should be seen as an attempt to change the teacher's role so that individuality in the students is no longer a problem but an advantage, and so that weakness in materials is no longer such a serious impediment.

SELF-ACCESS PRINCIPLES

PACE

This is probably the easiest segment to put into practice, and the one which immediately breaks lockstep. It means allowing students freedom to go through materials without having to wait for their classmates. This means that instead of having to think of activities for the faster students to do at the end of a class or a class activity, we allow them to get on with the next stage or activity. Eventually, of course, they will be able to finish the course before the others, maybe even only halfway through the semester. In a university, why not?

As the fast students disappear from the course, we will have fewer students to care for and so will have time for more individual attention.

This principle obviously spares fast students the boredom of waiting and allows slow students the time to master material without being forced to go faster than they can cope.

WHERE AND WHEN

This simply means letting students study in the library or at home, in classtime or outside classtime. Materials can be made available in the library, where possible, with answers provided. Students will still need consultation, though, so class time will be a contact session for individual problems to be solved, and no longer a lockstep session.

At first, students are surprised to find that the teacher doesn't call the register, until they realize that the teacher wants to stop emulating a police officer and start treating them more as patients than as suspects.

WHAT AND HOW MUCH

This principle could alternatively be called 'self-routing'. In the same way that the dental patient expects to have fillings put in only in the teeth suffering from caries, the teacher and student must decide together what ESP problems each student wants and needs to tackle.

This principle has important implications for teaching materials, of course. If students are no longer automatically to go through the course materials from beginning to end but are instead to choose appropriate exercises and tasks, they will need guidance as to what to choose. This brings us straight to the last segment:

HOW

Students can also be offered freedom to choose how to study. This means that the student who finds satisfaction in memorising vocabulary out of context can do so with the same freedom as the student who likes to read a lot or the student who wants to do grammar exercises, and so on.

These latter two principles imply increasing involvement by students in their own progress. This is what is meant by responsibility being placed on the student's shoulders. It implies a very different view of education -- one which students take some adapting to.

At this point the reader will no doubt be feeling skeptical. How can any of these fine-sounding principles be put into effect in our 'realidade', where students do not distinguish themselves by a responsible attitude and where the final grade seems to be the only thing they are interested in?

Hegel suggested that freedom is the recognition of necessity. In this paper a view of education is emerging in which freedom is bound up with responsibility. The last section addresses the problem of how to organize a self-access course. While it is not easy to implement freedom with responsibility in this way, mainly because of the assumptions underlying traditional education which have conditioned students, teachers and administrators into certain beliefs and attitudes, it is still worth trying, and evidence now suggests that it can be done reasonably successfully. Our profession is one in which we help students to learn, and this is much more like the role of the dentist than that of the policeman.

ORGANIZING THE ESP SELF-ACCESS COURSE

As with any innovation, it is wisest to try self-access in a pilot group first, extending it and adapting it in accordance with experience. Second, self-access can be introduced in a restricted or elaborate version. The more elaborate and complex, the more likely that something will be forgotten or go wrong. The potential ingredients are:

- a teacher's plan with lists of materials needed for the semester;
- instructions for students explaining in detail what they will have to do, how much freedom they will have and how they will be evaluated at the end of the course;
- a bank of texts;
- a bank of exercises;
- a record of each student's work and progress;
- reference materials (dictionaries, grammars, etc.);
- testing materials.

The more complex method is to prepare all course materials in advance. This may mean: producing a twenty-page instruction booklet; buying folders and preparing record sheets; selecting a large number of texts and exercises and finding somewhere to store them where students can gain access to them easily; and writing a diagnostic test and perhaps preparing some kind of standard exercise.

However, it is also possible to simplify almost every item in the aforementioned list. Instructions can be given orally at the beginning of semester. The students can select many of their own texts if they are taken to the library and shown where to find encyclopedias, journals in their own field of study, books on sport, medicine, social problems, etc. This reduces the effort of preparation considerably. It is not absolutely necessary to have mimeographed copies of exercises ready in advance, but merely a reference list of where they are to be found, and copies of the relevant books in the library or in the department. Students will have or borrow dictionaries, and grammars can also be made available in the library or the department. In these ways the complexity of purchasing, preparing and storing boxes of materials can be avoided.

At the beginning of the semester teachers should spend ten to fifteen class hours ensuring that all students understand the rationale behind the course, showing them how to use reading strategies using texts in their native language, and ensuring that all students understand how they will be evaluated.

In relation to this last point, it seems best to go for a test-type of high face-validity. This can be achieved by having the students prepare a term paper which they will have to write after reading a minimum of ten pages of continuous text, possibly using source materials in English. Alternatively, you could make it clear that they will have to produce a summary of a long text or a series of summaries of short ones for their final grade. Neither of these test-types is technically 'reliable' for scoring or quick to correct and grade, but they do seem of obvious face-validity in terms of the kinds of uses students will be expected to put their ESP skills to in academic or professional life after the ESP course is over.

A useful way of showing students what is meant by a summary is to do it orally in the first few sessions several times. Each student or at first each group of three to six students selects a text and reads it in class time, knowing that the other students in the class have not read the text and do not have a copy in front of them. The task is to report on the main ideas in the text, preferably with some critical commentary.

The advantages of this procedure are that it is easy to report on the main points orally, and that the activity is genuinely communicative, since the other students do not know the original text. They in turn should be encouraged to give feedback to the text-reporter-summarizer by asking questions.

You may object that these first few hours are not 'self-access' at all. True. They are very much like traditional teaching procedures, even if their main aim is to show the student how to get away from dependence on traditional teaching. The reason for starting like that is to give the students something to negotiate about: a basis for analysing their problems and choosing materials to help them solve them. It is essential for students to understand the course and the testing-types. As reading strategies will almost certainly be new to them and go against previous training and experience, it seems worthwhile showing them how they might be able to achieve the mastery you expect by the end of the course. After this initial stage, you and they should be ready for self-access to take over.

Expect to feel strange in your self-access teacher role. We have all been trained to be on stage, and it is at first odd to spend time giving consultations with possibly half the class absent.

Also expect your students to be perplexed at their freedom and at first to behave somewhat irresponsibly. Teachers in Latin America usually say, "Ah, but our students are incredibly irresponsible -- all they will do is cheat. What you're proposing might work elsewhere but couldn't possibly work here!" It is true that we can find students everywhere who are irresponsible and who often cheat. But if you treat students as if you expect them to be responsible, the vast majority will, in fact, behave responsibly and respond the better for it.

To encourage a responsible attitude it is a good idea to do as the dentist does: to arrange for periodical check-ups. At these brief consultation times you could ensure that your records are up-to-date on each student's problems, on progress reported and on tasks carried out. One way of doing this is to insist that all students should attend at least one class every two weeks by rota and to carry out the consultation either individually or as a small-group activity. Group discussion of problems and techniques is invaluable not only because of the immense value of peer-teaching, but also because it brings back some of the group atmosphere which can be a valuable aspect of traditional teaching.

CONCLUSIONS

Conventional English teaching has been seen to rest on a basis of educational assumptions which are rather dubious; self-access principles which encourage freedom with responsibility were put forward as an alternative. Some ideas on how to set up a self-access ESP course were then developed. It is hoped that some of the readers of this paper may try self-access techniques for teaching ESP (or FSP, SSP, GSP, etc.) if they have not done so already.

One final word. The dentistry metaphor has been used throughout this paper as a model for English teachers to try to follow and adapt for ESP. But, of course, no claim is made or implied that self-access ESP is painless to teacher or 'patient', as is indeed the case with a visit to the dentist's.

COMMON PROBLEMS IN TEACHING WRITING, SPELLING AND PRONUNCIATION

TO ARAB STUDENTS

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Some of the most common problems in teaching English to Arab students include those in spelling, writing and pronunciation. Interference from Arabic to English can account for some of these errors, and ESL literature -- most recently Hutchinson writing in TEAM #48 -- has suggested ways to avoid and correct these problems.

WRITING

The most obvious difference between Arabic and English is the fact that Arabic moves from right to left while English moves from left to right, affecting speed and accuracy of writing as well as comprehension and ability to decode. The other most immediate problem for beginning Arab students of English is the learning of Roman script. Arab students must develop skills in writing an entirely new alphabet.

It has been suggested that writing errors result from interference from Classical Arabic while speech errors result from colloquial Arabic (Scott and Tucker 1974). Although this hypothesis remains just that, it serves as a possible clue to the error problems created by the differences between Modern Standard Arabic and various colloquial forms.

According to Thompson-Panos and Thomas-Ružić (1963), Arab students tend to have some basic differences with English verb tenses because Arabic is a highly aspectual language:

While English can combine a number of tenses with simple, perfective, and progressive aspects, Arabic makes two distinctions: the perfect and imperfect aspects.

The authors go on to state that Arab students seem to have basic difficulties in learning and using verb tenses, especially "in sequence of tenses across clauses."

A major problem with Arabic students' written English is the overuse of coordinating conjunctions (often at the beginning of sentences) at the expense of subordination (Yorkey 1977). Cowan (1978) supports this view and says:

Linguistically speaking, Arabic as a language compounds and is associative. College English skills require analysis and subordination of thought; Arabic requires synthesis and coordination.

One very good example of this problem is that in Arabic the relative clause and antecedent clause are both complete sentences. They are coordinate rather than subordinate.

SPELLING

Spelling difficulties are attributed often to the differences in Arabic writing systems and the differences in the vowel system between Arabic and English. In the Thompson-Panos and Thomas-Ruzić study (1983) of errors, the authors found:

Spelling errors constituted the single most common error found in a study of freshman compositions at the University of Petroleum and Minerals in Saudi Arabia (Beck 1979). In fact, errors in spelling were so pervasive that ninety-eight percent of all paragraphs examined contained at least one spelling error, with the majority containing many.

In an attempt to identify basic causes and types of spelling errors, Ibrahim (1978), working from the University of Jordan, suggests the following categories:

1. Errors caused by the non-phonetic nature of English spelling, such as the inconsistency in spelling the weak vowels (*husbund, *bigner).
2. Errors caused by differences between the sound systems of English and Arabic, such as the substitution of the letter b for p as in *beoble, and hypercorrected spelling that represents both b and p as p (*hapit, *compination).

3. Errors attributed to analogy, such as *langidge (compare knowledge), *maney (compare money), and *toled (compare liked).

4. Errors attributed to the somewhat inconsistent spelling in English word derivation, such as high/*hight and speak/*speech.

5. Transitional errors resulting from ignorance or overgeneralization of a spelling rule.

Thompson-Panos and Thomas-Ružić (1983) suggest an additional category of spelling errors "caused by differences in the orthographic representation of the common vowel sounds in the two languages" (compare: Muhamad, Mohamed, Mohammad), and they conclude that:

... the two systems for representing vowels in the two languages lack close correspondence. In written Arabic, the name 'Mohammad' is simply 'mhmd'. While the vowel sounds in this name are articulated, they are not represented orthographically.

Additionally, organization of dictionaries in Arabic and in English is quite different. Arabic dictionaries are arranged so that words are categorized according to their root words.

In recent testing done at the University of Petroleum and Minerals, Natusch (1984) reports that test results indicate a high degree of correlation between spelling abilities and overall use of English. The results from these examinations may be used to predict how well a student may perform on other examinations.

PRONUNCIATION

A discussion of teaching pronunciation (and its concomitant problems) to Arab students must address the situation of diglossia or triglossia. In general terms, there are three forms of Arabic: Classical, Colloquial and Modern Standard. Modern Standard is used in the mass media and journalism. However, various Colloquial forms of Arabic are different even though they are mutually intelligible. For this reason, it is difficult to suggest traditional contrastive analysis in dealing with pronunciation problems (McBeath 1984).

On the other hand, Nasr (1963) proposes certain contrastive features which may be used in teaching pronunciation to Arab students. He cites the fact that there is no /p/ phoneme to contrast with a /b/ phoneme as is the case in English. Therefore, an Arab student must be able to hear and produce /p/ in contrast with /b/. Nasr suggests the use of minimal pair exercises as a remedy.

Another pair of phonemes often giving difficulty is the /f/ and /v/ contrast. For example, Arab students find it difficult to distinguish between 'invent' and 'infant'. Nasr suggests the use of modified cloze exercises here (e.g., The ire in the urnace was ery hot). Other suggestions for emphasizing these contrasts would have to have spelling drills with words that contain these problem phonemes. Obviously the student must learn to recognize the difference in reception before the word can be corrected in production.

There are meaningful vowel variations in English that are difficult for Arab students to hear and/or produce (e.g., the variations found in beat, bit; bought, boat; put, but; boot and bout). Also, the back vowels of English: /u/, /o/ and /ɔ/ found in words such as boot, boat and bought are not allophonic variants for most Arab students. Transliterated Arabic words such as 'Muslim' and 'Moslem', 'Qur'an' and 'Koran', and 'Muhumad' and 'Mohamed' provide examples of instances in which there is a lack of correspondence between meaningful vowel variations in Arabic and English (Thompson-Panos and Thomas-Ruzić 1983).

CONCLUSION

In this paper, I have attempted to show that recent ESL/EFL literature suggests various theoretical approaches to recognizing and correcting errors in writing, spelling and pronunciation patterns of Arab students. However, until further research can confirm that different types of errors result from interference from different forms of Arabic, the problem of diglossia prevents an intensive use of contrastive analysis; nevertheless, contrastive analysis is an effective means of addressing some basic writing, spelling and pronunciation problems which stem from contrastive elements in Arabic and English.

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Puerto Rico's political association with the United States began after the Spanish American War in 1898. It now has commonwealth status and elects its own governor. Spanish is the dominant language for the majority of the population, but there are functions for English in business, industry, tourism, etc. A large percentage of the population has some degree of bilingualism.

Students in Puerto Rico study English for one class period a day from first grade to twelfth. At the University of Puerto Rico they must take two years of English. In spite of this, many students feel that they are not functional in English.

In 1982-83, a formative evaluation of the second-year English programs at the University of Puerto Rico was conducted in order to examine whether the current curriculum was meeting the English language needs of the students. The instrument devised was a questionnaire which measured the students' self-assessed proficiency in English, their motivations and attitudes toward the language as well as their current and projected uses of English. The questionnaire was completed by 864 students enrolled in low-intermediate skills-oriented classes. This represented 84% of all the students in these classes. In general they were non-English majors who did not take regular content courses although some may choose to take them in the future. The questionnaire, written in Spanish, was given to the students in their English classes and completed in class. The questionnaire was a revised and expanded version of one used in a pilot study that was conducted during the first semester.

The question might be asked why we felt it was important to study student attitudes. As experienced teachers we feel we know the needs of our students and can give them what they need. Although teacher identification of needs and planning of courses that take into account the abilities and needs of the students are important, we felt that it is also important to consider what the students feel. Recent research in second language learning supports our position. It has been shown that affective variables (e.g., attitude, anxiety or communication apprehension) should be analyzed when second language acquisition is being examined.

Table 1 is a summary of the students' self rating of their speaking, aural comprehension, writing and reading in English. Half of the students felt that their reading abilities were good. Only 12% felt that they were fluent speakers.

TABLE 1

- Question #26. On a scale of one to five (from worse to better) how would you evaluate your fluency in speaking English?
 Question #27. How would you evaluate your comprehension of spoken English?
 Question #28. How would you evaluate your written English?
 Question #29. How would you evaluate your comprehension of written English?

		#26 Fluency %	#27 Oral Comprehension %	#28 Writing %	#29 Reading Comprehension %
Worse	1	8.7	4.5	5.3	2.9
	2	25.8	17.0	23.1	15.2
	3	53.1	42.0	40.7	32.1
	4	10.7	28.4	26.8	39.0
Better	5	1.7	8.4	4.1	10.8

Table 2 summarizes three attitude questions. Eighty-one percent of the students stated that they liked English. There were 77% who felt that their attitudes have improved since elementary school, and a larger percentage, 88%, did not feel that their attitudes have become worse. This may be explained by the students' belief that the quality of English instruction improves from elementary school to the university. Another explanation may be that young children in Puerto Rico do not have many uses for English outside the English classroom. As they grow older, they become part of a world in which there are more functions for English.

TABLE 2

- Question #51. I like English.
 Question #52. My attitude towards English has improved since my childhood.
 Question #55. My attitude towards English has become worse since my childhood.

	#51 Like %	#52 Better %	#55 Worse %
Complete agreement	35.8	34.9	4.1
Agreement	45.2	42.9	7.4
Not in agreement	16.4	18.0	22.7
Total disagreement	2.5	4.7	65.8

The summary in Table 3 indicates that students see the usefulness of English apart from any feeling they have about the political status of Puerto Rico. It is true that most of the students have had very little choice about learning English. However, they recognize that English is a world language. Contrary to statements that have often been made, students in the study did not feel that English is ruining their Spanish. Only 9.7% of the students stated that English has had a negative effect on their Spanish.

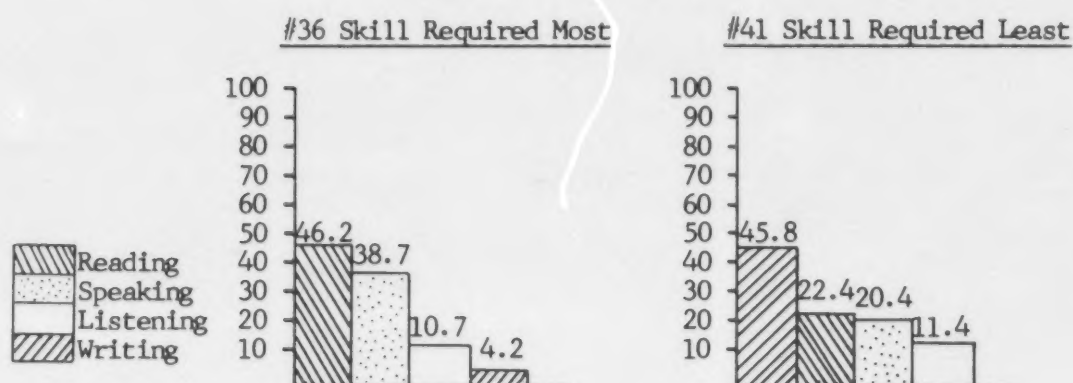
TABLE 3

	#58 Relation with U.S. %	#53 Political Status %	#54 World Use %	#56 Neg. Effect on Spanish %
Agreement	57.6	60.6	94.2	9.7
Not in agreement	42.5	39.4	5.3	90.2

A series of questions was asked concerning self-assessed student needs (See Figure 1). The question to the left of the graph was: "At present what I most need English for is:" and the choice of responses were reading, speaking, listening or writing (listening referred to extended listening requiring no speech response, such as lectures, conferences, films, etc.). The question to the right of the graph asked, "At present what I least need English for is," with the possible responses: reading, speaking, listening or writing.

FIGURE 1

Present Needs (% figures)



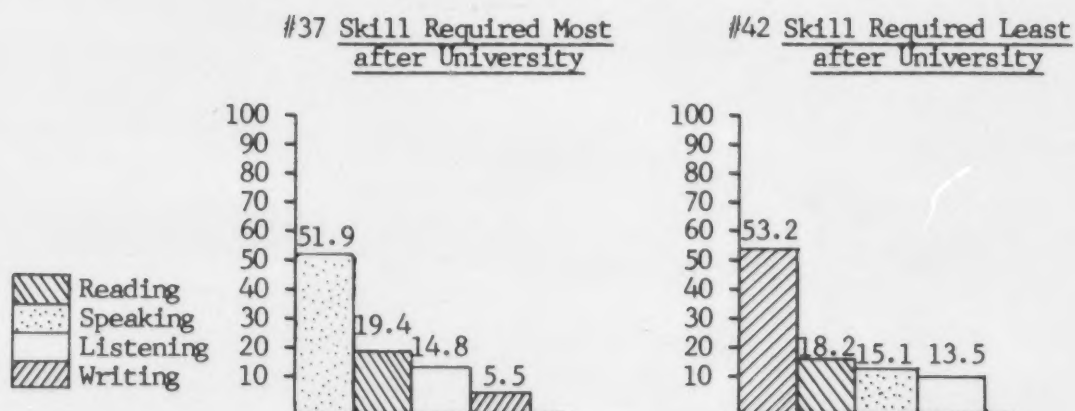
As can be seen, the skill that the largest percentage of students felt they need at present is reading (46.2% put this in first place). This is not

too surprising as many students have textbooks in English. What is surprising is the relatively high percentage of students who put speaking in first place (38.7%). One wonders where they do all this speaking in English. Unfortunately this was not asked. This response is consistent across fluency levels. The skill the students record that they least need at present is writing (see the graph on the right), and this response is also consistent across fluency levels.

Figure 2 corresponds to the questions, "After completing my university studies, I believe I will most need English for:" and "After completing my university studies I believe I will least need English for:" with the same possible responses as Figure 1.

FIGURE 2

Projected Needs (% figures)

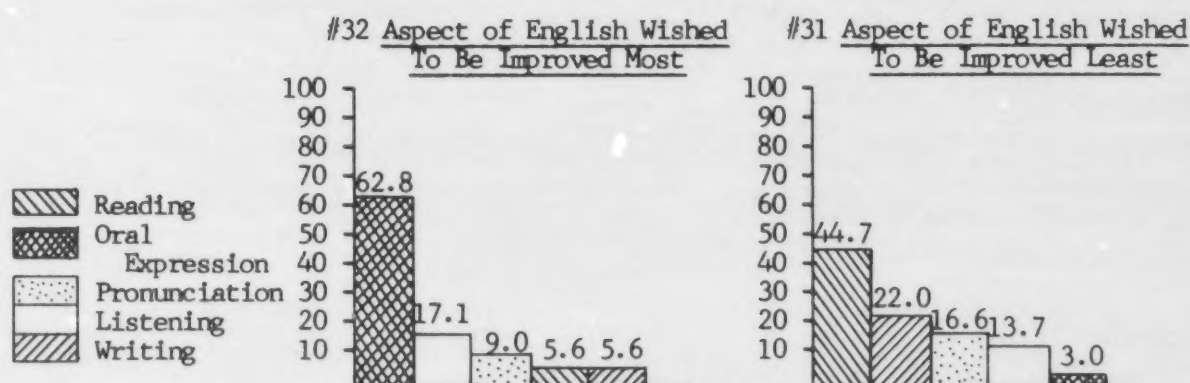


In answer to what they think they will most need in the future (Figure 2, left graph), speaking was the overwhelming choice. In the graph on the right we see that over half (53.2%) indicated they would least need writing. It seems they do not have to do much writing in English now, nor do they expect to in the future.

Students were also asked what aspect of their English they wished to improve. The possible responses are listed in Figure 3 on the left: reading, oral expression, listening, writing, and pronunciation, which was added because it is a component of speaking that can be worked on independently. As we see in the graph on the left, oral expression is by far the overwhelming choice, with 62.8%. Reading and writing together got the least number of first choice responses in desire to improve: only 5.6% each. This pattern is also generally found across fluency levels.

FIGURE 3

Desire to Improve (% figures)



When asked what they thought they least needed to improve (right graph), reading got the highest rating with 44.7%. Of course, this may or may not imply that they feel sufficiently confident in reading, but if we look back at the self-rating, in Table 1, we see that most students evaluated their reading toward the better part of the scale -- much better than their self-evaluation of their writing. However, their answers to the questions about the desire to improve can be interpreted as indicating their priorities. In comparing what they desire to improve with their present and future needs we can see that writing has a very low priority. Outside of the English class, since they do not need to write much in English at the university, they feel they will least need it in the future, and it has a low priority as a skill they wish to improve (We feel this reflects somewhat our changing world; it seems that letter writing, for example, has taken second place to long-distance phone calls). On the other hand, the ability to speak is given a high priority in terms of future needs and in terms of desire to improve, even though our students presently need to read English more than to speak it.

The students' desire to improve their speaking ability is again reflected in Table 4. In one question, "Do you plan to take an English elective in the future," 55.3% indicated affirmatively. However, when the question was changed to ask if they would take an additional course in conversational English, a whopping 85.5% said YES.

TABLE 4

	Yes %	No %
Question #39		
Do you plan to take an elective in English in the future?	55.3	44.7
Question #40		
If there were an additional course in conversational English, would you take it?	85.5	14.5

A question was also asked concerning the English requirement (see Table 5). At present English is a two-year requirement. Though most students preferred the status quo (40.9%), interestingly, a comparable number (36.7%) indicated that it should be more than a two-year requirement. Why should so many students want English to be required when they can take it as an elective? Apparently, either they want the decision out of their hands or they feel it should be general policy, indicating the importance they give to English. Very few wanted fewer than two years.

TABLE 5

Question #43. In the university, English should be ...

	#43 %
A one-year requirement	12.0
A two-year requirement	40.9
More than a two-year requirement	36.7
An elective	10.4

Another interesting finding had to do with certain class activities. The students were asked to choose which activities they would most like to practice in an oral English class, which activities they would choose second, and which they would choose last. In Table 6 we see that first choice for 75.5% was social conversation, second choice for 43.8% was work situations, and last for 47.9% was shopping.

TABLE 6

Question #44. Of the following activities, choose what you would most want to learn in a class of oral English:

Question #45. What would you choose second?

Question #46. What would you choose last?

	#44 First %	#45 Second %	#46 Last %
Shopping	.5	2.5	47.9
Social conversation	75.5	17.5	2.5
Public speaking	7.3	26.4	16.7
Work situations	14.2	43.8	11.1
Traveling	2.5	9.7	21.7

What are the implications of this? It could mean that the so-called survival skills, such as skills needed for commerce or travel, are not as relevant to most of our students in Puerto Rico as they might be to English students on the mainland. They want to be able to carry on a 'conversation,' presumably with a native speaker of English. We didn't ask to whom they expected to be talking and under what situations.

The second highest ranking priority was 'work situations'. They want to be able to use the language related to their jobs. It is very difficult to predict, however, what type of work situations these students will find for themselves in the future. Even if it were assumed that they will require English related to their major, there is a large variety of majors among our students (a survey indicated sixty-five different majors).

Where does all this information lead us as far as curriculum planning is concerned? First of all, we have seen that most of our students do have a positive attitude toward English, which is half the battle won. We have to take advantage of this positive attitude by providing them with what they want. Their highest priority is the development of speaking skills in spite of their immediate need to do more reading than speaking, and, as was stated, they feel that their reading skills are not that bad.

We are currently revising our whole second-year curriculum in light of these results. Whereas there was one second-year reading course which focused on contemporary themes, this is being revised into a four-level course with emphasis on listening and speaking; reading and writing will be used to aid the development of these skills.

Whereas we had no higher level conversational course available to the students besides content courses requiring a great deal of competence in comprehension, note-taking and writing, but very little opportunity to develop speaking fluency, we are now adding two upper-level conversational courses to the curriculum. As a result of consultations with the College of Natural Sciences, we have added an ESP three-level course for science majors who, besides having all their texts in English, will have at least one science course in English before they graduate. We have also added an English course for majors in public communication. These students speak on radio and television, write news releases and publish a book on oral history.

In conclusion, it is our view that students' attitudes, needs, and motivations, as reported by the students themselves, in addition to evaluating their needs by other methods, are important in assessing whether we are actually meeting their present as well as long-range English needs.

PICTURE-GUIDED ORAL SUMMARIES

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Both teachers and students here at the English Language Center appreciate the variety of subject matter presented as 'core' and 'related' readings in the two semesters comprising the Preparatory Year. Reading teachers can easily capitalize on their students' enthusiasm for these weekly topics.

One simple but effective method of 'recapping' a core reading unit, for example, is to have students present an oral summary of the lesson's contents. The following activity, taking fifteen minutes, not only reinforces important vocabulary but also enables students to practice their writing and oral skills.

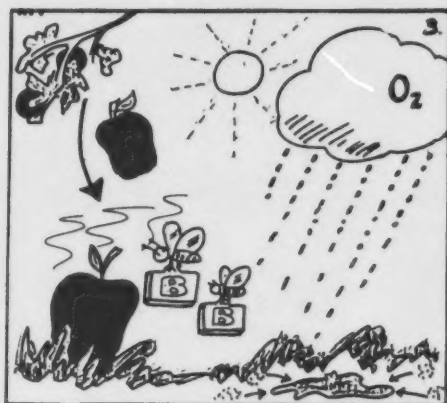
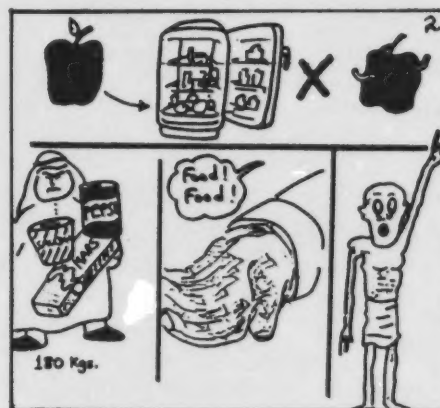
PROCEDURE

A picture-guided oral summary activity can be conducted in the following manner:

1. Tell students to carefully re-read the core reading passage for homework;
2. During the last class hour devoted to the core reading, prepare students for the oral summary activity with a series of rapid-fire comprehension questions. Reading books may be open at this stage;
3. Group students into threes or fours and appoint a team captain (أمير) and a secretary (كاتب) for each group;
4. Present each team with a mounted picture (teacher-produced or magazine cutout), illustrating one or more important topics discussed in the passage. Textbook illustrations can often be photocopied for this purpose as well;
5. Give students approximately seven or eight minutes to discuss the pictures, making sure that each member contributes at least one sentence. Remind groups to supply a short topic sentence and possibly a conclusion. Reading books are to be closed at this time;
6. Have each group select one of its members to present the summaries orally in front of the class. While these are being read, the pictures should be clearly visible to all students;
7. Award points for clarity of presentation, preciseness and overall content of the work.

SAMPLE

Here is a series of three teacher-produced pictures used in oral summary presentations on the subject of food spoilage. Important newly-learned vocabulary is underlined in the sample text accompanying the pictures.



Food spoilage is a natural process which occurs in animal and vegetable tissues. Spoilage begins when the life source of an apple is cut off. The bruise on this apple causes tears in the cells. Micro-organisms like bacteria then invade the tissue through these tears. Within a few days, the main structure of the apple is gone.

CONCLUSION

Teachers can extend the above activity by presenting more challenging visual stimuli or by pairing students with pictures. In addition, after each summary presentation, teachers may encourage questions which should be answered by respective team members.

Picture-guided oral summaries such as these give weaker students an opportunity to contribute -- however minimally -- to a final finished product. If this activity is regularly practiced, students will soon become accustomed to the oral summary format; in time, a lively competitive spirit will develop on 'oral summary day'.

RESEARCH SUMMARIES

ESL SPELLING ERRORS

This study investigated spelling errors in compositions written by students from four different language backgrounds at Iowa State University. Fifty-six writing samples were collected: nine from Arabic speakers, ten from Chinese speakers, twenty from Malay speakers and seventeen from Spanish speakers. All of the students had scored 80-89 (inclusive) on the Michigan Test of English Language Proficiency and all had achieved a minimum of 500 on the TOEFL. They were all enrolled in academic programs at Iowa State during the 1981-1982 school year.

Four hypotheses were tested: 1) that ESL students at this proficiency level would make more spelling errors than native speakers; 2) that the ESL students would make more habitual errors (real mistakes) than slips (misspellings which are corrected elsewhere in the same composition); 3) that at this proficiency level there would be more spelling errors among the speakers of languages that use the Roman alphabet (Spanish, Malay) than among the speakers of languages that do not (Arabic, Malay); and 4) that ESL students would err more frequently in the medial position of the word than initially or finally.

The results showed that for the four language groups the error percentage mean was 1.88% of total words written; native speakers exhibit a 1.1% error rate (Chedru and Gerschwind, as cited in Wing and Baddeley 1980). Second, the research showed that the 'slip' mean for all languages was .19 errors, while the habitual error mean was 3.66 errors. Third, contrary to Oller and Ziahosseiny's findings (1970), the difference between the non-Roman and the Roman alphabet language error percentages was found to be insignificant. Fourth, it was found that the means for error position of all four groups were as follows: initial was .428 errors, medial was 2.61 errors, and final was .66 errors.

The results of this study suggest that we have no evidence that spelling pedagogy should vary from language group to language group. The ESL students make more 'real mistakes' than slips, which indicates that the spelling skills of ESL students of all language backgrounds need to be improved. Further studies of spelling errors of other language groups and proficiency groups would help the classroom teacher of ESL to understand more about how to confront spelling problems.

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This survey was initiated in order to identify prominent problem areas in English language instruction in secondary schools in Turkey. Information was gathered from teachers and students alike as well as from administrators and parents. Information was primarily gathered by means of interviews, but questionnaires were also employed in this study. Fifty teachers, thirty administrators, seventy-five students and thirty parents all took part in the interviewing process. An additional eighty-seven teachers responded to the questionnaire. The investigation included subjects studying in or employed by both Regular and by Anatolian high schools, the former requiring four hours of language instruction per week and the latter ten. In the Anatolian schools, an additional ten hours of English exposure results comes from math and science courses using English as the medium of instruction.

This questionnaire examined aspects of syllabus design, student motivation, teacher training, and classroom facilities. A few of the many findings that emerged from this study are reported here.

SYLLABUS DESIGN

Most English courses are based on the structural syllabus. Grammar study receives the greatest emphasis both in terms of time and testing, followed by speaking, reading, listening and then reading. Mechanical drilling is generally the rule; communicative activities the exception. The four skills are not integrated to any degree. Reading is seen as a vehicle for introducing new vocabulary and for reinforcing previously-taught grammar. Students complain that the materials used do not lend themselves to student interaction (81%), that teachers often have no time for answering questions because they are pressed to complete the course on time (25%), and that they hesitate to participate for fear of making errors (66%).

STUDENT MOTIVATION

Most teachers felt that students generally come to them well-motivated, but that student enthusiasm erodes fast. This they attribute in part to the fact that English is not included in the first screening of university entrance exams. Another reason cited is the unimaginative approach of the course text.

Classes are grouped heterogeneously. Many teachers claim that because of this they often lose the attention of their best and most motivated students for the sake of the slow and in most cases less motivated ones.

TEACHER TRAINING

The survey revealed that a significant number of teachers lack confidence in their effectiveness, and that this stems largely from two factors: lack of teaching experience (26%) and lack of proficiency in English (19%). Administrators point out that the low pay scales attract few qualified teachers, who find that their English ability will command a much higher salary in the business world. Teachers expressed interest in organizing training seminars and in traveling in English-speaking countries as means for improving their effectiveness.

CLASSROOM FACILITIES

The majority of classrooms contain more than thirty students; roughly one-third hold between twenty and thirty. Overcrowding is a prominent concern shared by many interviewees. A corollary problem was that little time is to be found for remedial and individual work with students. Students complain of the lack of support materials, especially audio-visual aids.

The above are but a few of the many findings of this investigation. Problems identified by teachers, students, administrators and parents are those fairly common to all secondary schools in Turkey. Anyone interested in detailed results or in contributing to this body of research is invited to contact the authors.

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EIGHT SIMULATIONS

FOR UPPER-INTERMEDIATE AND MORE ADVANCED STUDENTS OF ENGLISH

Author: Leo Jones; Cambridge, 1983

Reviewer: John J. Pint
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Dhahran, Saudi Arabia

Leo Jones offers EFL teachers eight opportunities to plunge their students into hours of intense activity that can mobilize their reading, writing, speaking and listening skills for the real purpose of language: communication and self-expression. For example, in one situation, people in a small town must choose among several plans that would solve a severe local traffic problem. The students prepare for this by studying a well-drawn map, sketches of the plans, and even a Michelin Guide-like write-up on the area. Does it sound like pretty tame stuff? Hold on! Just as the simulation is about to begin, the teacher (who has a very low profile throughout) switches on a tape recorder, and the students hear a local news broadcast revealing that members of the Parents' Association "propose to sit down in one of the main roads through the town and to stop all traffic for 24 hours." At this point each student is handed a card briefly outlining his role, e.g.:

AHMED BAILEY - COUNTY COUNCILLOR	The traffic problem is not as serious as the parents claim. Any solution would be very expensive. It's only in the summer that there are delays to traffic through the town. -- Decide on your attitude to the proposed 'Day of Action.'
----------------------------------	--

The use of time limits, as well as the introduction of strategically timed "radio reports" and even a few overheard rumors, add elements of surprise to the basic simulation formula, requiring quick changes of tactics or last-minute pleas for consensus from the members of one's group. Except for a frequent lack of appropriate sound effects on the tape, EIGHT SIMULATIONS displays the quality that results from hard work, attention to details and sensitivity to the needs and potentials of learners.

Jones tells students "these simulations will improve your fluency, your self-confidence and your ability to communicate with people." He could also mention the enrichment of their passive (and possibly active) vocabularies by hundreds of important words encountered and used in a life-like context. Perhaps Jones could write eight more simulations, especially designed to enliven technical ESL programs in search of interesting ways to present vocabulary items and make them stick.

AMERICAN STREAMLINE: CONNECTIONS

Authors: Bernard Hartley and Peter Viney
Oxford University Press, 1984

Reviewer: Dave Kerswell
University of Petroleum and Minerals
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American Streamline: Connections consists of a student's book divided into eighty units, a teacher's book containing all the pages from the student's book plus step-by-step procedures for teaching each unit, workbooks A and B and two cassettes containing the conversations and texts from the student's book.

An integrated, intensive course in English for adult and young adult intermediate students, this book is designed for those who have already taken a basic elementary course (such as American Streamline: Departures). Together, the two books cover the basic structures and vocabulary which need to be learned actively if a reasonable level of linguistic competence is to be attained. This book adopts a very practical approach to language teaching and learning.

The Streamline series has been very successfully used for the teaching of English in England for nearly a decade; and when it appeared, it was definitely the most stimulating and attractive course available, with intrinsically interesting, wide-ranging situations. Although the cultural content (and to some extent, the linguistic content) was very modern at that time, it is now beginning to become slightly dated, though the range of pictures, cartoons and diagrams remains fascinating and stimulating.

The American Streamline is a follow-up and has been up-dated and 'Americanized'. Great pains have been taken to get the cultural and linguistic balance right for the American market. Indeed, high praise must be given to the American adapters.

This book has a very good chance of achieving its aims: to lead the students towards communicative competence in English. This is not only because of the varied, imaginative contexts, but also because of the excellent lesson notes for the teacher, which should enable him to set up situations that use really natural communicative language. The student is also encouraged to be creative with his newly acquired language. The two workbooks relate directly to the corresponding units in Streamline. They provide very useful summaries and additional written exercises which reinforce and consolidate the basic core of the lessons. They should be used only after full oral practice, however.

For most teachers, the main weakness of this book is that it is not very suitable for 'dipping into'; and as the series has always been an 'all or nothing' affair, this can detract from its value. The authors claim correctly that it is an 'intensive' course. This does not prevent the teacher from supplementing the course with his other material, but care must be taken not to duplicate the teaching of any given structure.

American Streamline: Connections can be very effectively used intensively within TEFL colleges and schools in North America, but it would not be quite so suitable as back-up material. Nevertheless, some of the great range of ideas could be adapted and then adopted. The main strength of the book is the excellent cultural background it provides. In North America this can be appreciated and utilized to the fullest, whereas the book would be of little use where the cultural interests in the language were not important or where the linguistic forms were not really needed for an ESP setting.

ENGINEERING: ELECTRICAL ENGINEERING

and

COMPUTER SCIENCE

Author: Richard A. Meyers

Reviewer: R.K. Singh
Indian School of Mines
Dhanbad, India

For the last few years I have been anxiously thinking about the possibility of re-orienting the pure ESP single-topic situation to a wider social situation without upsetting the specific professional/academic needs of students. There seems to be a need for a conceptual re-adjustment in ESP to accommodate the realities of diversity and adaptation, and it may not be encouraging to discover that Macmillan's Career English series books, though introducing a functional element into ESP, do not integrate the FL students' academic and social needs even when the conversational situation between a student/trainee and an expert in the field is intended to be of a social nature, albeit formal.

Both titles -- part of the Career English series by Richard A. Meyers -- are intended for students in an FL situation with some proficiency in English. Designed to teach the idioms and technical terminology these students may need in order to communicate in English within their career areas, both books construct on-the-job settings to teach the specific language of Electrical Engineering/Computer Science.

The lessons (15 in Electrical Engineering and 13 in Computer Science) are specific topic based (e.g., Electromagnetic Radiation; Transmission Lines; Logic Circuits: Bits, Bytes, and Words; Programming Languages; and Word Processors) with question-answer, explanation clarification type dialogues between the expert (engineer/programmer) and the student. Their conversations are, however, confined to discussing key terms used in the two disciplines.

There is no attempt at creating any informal or social situations for talking (which makes the dialogues unreal), though the author claims that the special terminology is introduced in a realistic context.

Almost every key term is explained well. To reinforce the learning-through-dialogues, the books provide a terminology practice in which each key term is defined and used in three sample sentences. At the end of each lesson there is a simple check-up exercise, i.e., fill in the blanks with the proper terms from the list. An answer key to the check-ups and a glossary listing all the terms in the text are provided at the end of each book. The black and white photographs in each lesson enhance the appearance of the books.

Though the organisation of text in both books is in dialogue form, these dialogues are artificial and do not improve English skills. The author of the course suggests that teachers allow students to role-play the dialogues, which should improve their spoken interaction after they have been motivated to 'speak' English, and the accompanying cassette tapes should also be helpful. However, there is only one type of textbook-bound language exercise -- no practice nor any activities that stimulate communication.

Meyers' is an ESP course with a low level of focus on communicative events. After all, communication in a specialised subject setting cannot be confined to the use of purely technical terms. ESP must not be merely a restricted language with a specialised vocabulary if it is to be a means to the pursuit of academic or vocational goals. Even if a student possesses the subject knowledge in his own language, he will seek the mechanisms for the expression of that knowledge in English in natural situations.

Though the two books contain examples of key terms in use, I doubt if these can help build up the necessary concepts for following the actual course in Electrical Engineering/Computer Science since the text is confined to the sentence level only. Thus, as a language course, they fail to provide students in general with practical and operational satisfaction, though they might be effective in a tailor-made course in which instruction is carried out in an electrical engineering laboratory or a computer centre prior to the specialized subject teaching.

ELC NEWS ITEMS

In October, BARRY NATUSCH, coordinator of our computer-assisted language learning programs, presented an informative talk followed by a discussion on the value of computers in TESL. Attended by nearly thirty faculty and other interested persons, this event marked the first in a series of monthly gatherings designed to help keep us on top of developments in our field. At press time we were looking forward to the November presentation by CHARLES GARDINER, local secretary for the Cambridge Exams, who was lined up to speak to us on proficiency exams.

By the time students leave their orientation studies here, they have much more than a nodding acquaintance with computers. Use of computers is on the increase this semester; Barry Natusch reports that the average number of classes going to CAL has been forty-eight per week. Labs have for some years been equipped with a Hewlett-Packard 3000 mainframe, about sixty terminals, and numerous software programs. Space was recently made available for two more labs forming a network of fifty-three Apple computers. Additionally, one Apple has been set aside for teachers to use in compiling statistics and providing students more feedback on their progress. RORY MCGREAL is currently working on developing new and adapting old simulation games, and LEE RACHAR has been assigned to debug the programs.

At least two of our number used some of their vacation time last summer to take advantage of conferences and courses, returning to UPM with a better idea of developments in the field. DOUG HICKMAN, reading coordinator, attended the 1984 Summer TESOL Institute at Oregon State University. RICHARD ALBERTSON participated in a week-long technical writing seminar held at the University of Michigan.

Recently joining the ELC faculty is JOHN FARNAM. John comes to us from Thailand where his experience included positions at Khon Kaen University and Thammasat University. He has also taught in Indonesia and in the Vancouver school system in Canada.

Under the auspices of SALEH ASHOOR, Dean of Library Affairs, and with the cooperation of the library staff, Orientation English classes will soon be taking tours of the UPM library.

Extensive renovations have begun on the Old Administration Building, which will soon house administrative and faculty offices for the English Language Center. Present plans call for the TEAM office to be located there as well.

Standing committees for the Preparatory Year Program were recently appointed from among ELC faculty. The five committees and their chairmen include (1) ELC Application Evaluation Committee with JOHN HAFSETH as chairman, (2) Career Day Committee, headed by JOHN HILLIS, (3) Evening Language Program Committee, chaired by LARRY MEASE, (4) Study Skills Committee, RODERICK WATHEN, chairman, and (5) Speaking Contest Committee with STAN GENTRY as chairman. In addition, an ad hoc committee under the chairmanship of MARTIN DRURY has been working on a revision of the catalogue for the Preparatory Year Program.

ANNOUNCEMENTS

* 19th ANNUAL TESOL CONVENTION: This conference will be held April 9 to 14 at the New York Hilton Hotel in New York City.

* RELC SEMINAR ON LANGUAGES ACROSS THE CURRICULUM: This conference will be held in the RELC Building, 30 Orange Grove Road in Singapore 1025 from April 22 to 25, 1985 and is sponsored by Southeast Asian Ministers of Education Organization. Write to Ms Yolanda Beh for further information.

* CALL FOR PAPERS: Fourth Annual Conference on Languages for Business and the Professions to be held 2-4 May 1985. Write: Conference Chair, Department of Foreign Languages; 219 New Alexander Building; Eastern Michigan University; Ypsilanti, MI 48197 USA

* ENGLISH FOR SPECIFIC PURPOSES IN THE ARAB WORLD: UPM is the official distribution center in the Middle East for this 300-page volume of twenty-five papers edited by John Swales and Hassan Mustafa and delivered August 1983 at the University of Aston in Birmingham. Readers interested in obtaining a copy may do so by writing to: Office of Preparatory Year Programs; University of Petroleum and Minerals; Dhahran 31261, Saudi Arabia. Enclose a cheque for seven pounds Sterling payable to University of Aston in Birmingham.

* CULTURAL KEY EXPERIENCES: Dr. Udo O.H. Jung (University of Marburg; Markt 23, D-3550; Federal Republic of Germany) is collecting descriptions and interpretations of insightful cross-cultural anecdotes. Please include: date and location of the event; number of persons involved; those persons' sex, age and status relative to each other; languages/dialects involved. Indicate the degree of mastery you have of the languages involved, how this could have influenced the events, and what other languages you speak. Type in English, German or French. Signed consent for story to be published is needed.

* REQUESTS FOR MANUSCRIPTS: The American Council of Teachers of Foreign Languages sponsors a Materials Center which welcomes original manuscripts and/or teacher oriented materials for publication and distribution to language educators. Topics considered: Professional Development, Student Materials; Promoting Foreign Language Study; Bilingual Education; Computer Assisted Instruction; Culture; ESOL; Exchange Programs; Individualized Instruction. Submit the original manuscript and two copies to: Dorothy Gabel Liebowitz; ACTFL Materials Center; 1930 Laurel Ave. Hanover Park, IL 60103 USA.

* 18TH TESOL CONVENTION IN HOUSTON: Many papers delivered at this conference have been taped and are available on audiocassette. For a listing, write to: Audio Transcripts Ltd.; 610 Madison St. Alexandria, Virginia 22314; USA.

* CAMBRIDGE APPLIED LINGUISTICS SERIES: Cambridge University Press has recently established a new series under the editorship of Michael H. Long and Jack C. Richards. This series will focus on second language education. Contact the editors with a brief proposal which should include a suggested table of contents and a sample chapter or related journal publication by you. Write: Drs. Michael Long and Jack C. Richards; Dept. of ESOL; Moore Hall; University of Hawaii at Manoa; 1890 East-West Road; Honolulu, Hawaii 96822; USA.

* INTERNATIONAL PUBLISHERS REPRESENTATIVES has moved to Cyprus: 16 Kyriakos Matsis Ave.; Ay. Omoloyites; P.O. Box 5731; Nicosia.

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